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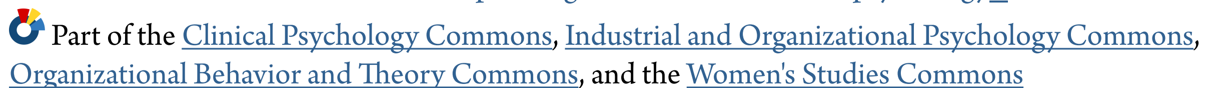
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COPING WITH CUSTOMER SEXUAL HARASSMENT: EXAMINING RETALIATION AS A COPING STRATEGY AND TESTING A CONTEXTUAL MODEL

by

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A Dissertation Submitted to the Faculty of
Old Dominion University in Partial Fulfillment of the
Requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

INDUSTRIAL/ORGANIZATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY

OLD DOMINION UNIVERSITY
May, 2011

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ABSTRACT

COPING WITH CUSTOMER SEXUAL HARASSMENT:
EXAMINING RETALIATION AS A COPING STRATEGY AND
TESTING A CONTEXTUAL MODEL

Valerie J. Morganson
Old Dominion University, 2011
Director: Dr. Debra A. Major

Research has established that customer sexual harassment (CSH) is a widespread and harmful workplace phenomenon. This dissertation consists of two studies on the topic. The first sought to operationalize a measure of coping with customer sexual harassment. In addition to three traditional factors of sexual harassment coping (i.e., external, internal, and social), Study 1 predicted that worker retaliation toward the customer would constitute an additional form of coping with CSH. The measure of coping was tested using a sample of 200 women customer service workers. Data were analyzed using factor analysis. As expected, retaliation was supported as a coping strategy, distinguishable from other forms of coping. Contrary to expectations, external coping broke into two factors (i.e., avoidance and reporting). Results supported a five-factor model of coping consisting of internal, avoidance, reporting, social, and retaliation strategies. The second study used confirmatory factor analysis and found additional support for the five-factor measurement model. Study 2 proposed a model in which client power and CSH severity moderate the relationship between coping and both posttraumatic stress and job-related emotional exhaustion. A total of 167 customer service women participated. Data were analyzed using hierarchical multiple regression. Social, retaliation, internal, and reporting strategies were positively related to posttraumatic stress. Internal and avoidance coping strategies were positively related to

job-related emotional exhaustion. Social coping and power interacted to predict posttraumatic stress; the relationship between social coping and posttraumatic stress became increasingly negative as power decreased. Other interactions were non-significant. This study expanded the nomological network of retaliation toward the customer and broadens conceptualizations of coping to include retaliation. Future research calls for mixed (between- and within- subjects) research designs that capture coping over time. Practical implications are discussed.

This dissertation is dedicated to my loving husband, Jorge. I can't imagine getting through dissertation (or life for that matter!) without him.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

First and foremost, I would like to thank my dissertation chair and academic advisor, Debbie Major. She has been an ideal role model as I strive to be a great researcher and I/O Psychologist. Debbie has challenged me to develop and grow, always going the extra mile to provide me with ample opportunity to build my skillset and professional identity. Her thoughtful advice has helped me deal with dissertation issues, graduate school, and personal life challenges. I will always be thankful for the incredible care and concern she has shown me.

Special thanks go to my committee members, Richard Landers and Mona Danner, for their responsiveness, excellent insight, and encouragement. I was lucky to have such a supportive and constructive committee!

In addition to my committee members, Matt Henson has been enormously helpful, providing challenge, encouragement, and access to statistical resources and knowledge over the years. Likewise, I am particularly grateful for Karin Orvis for her mentorship, encouragement, and for the example of excellence she sets.

Finally, I would never have made it to and through graduate school without the loving support of my family and friends. Special thanks to Jorge, Dad, Mamere, Mom, Dave, Linz, Meghan, and Bianca for keeping me balanced and for providing me with focus, sympathy, encouragement and joy when I've needed it most.

This research was supported in part by a Clara Mayo Grant from the Society of the Psychological Study of Social Issues and from a fellowship from the Old Dominion University College of Sciences.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

"The Equal Employment Opportunity Commission filed the lawsuit in federal court in St. Louis..., alleging that Aimee Boss and Morgan Hagedon quit after being subjected to "crude sexual comments," "solicitations for sex," and "offensive sexual touching" by an investor and frequent customer of the bar and restaurant..."

– Robert Patrick, *Tribune Business News* (July 2, 2008).

Sexual harassment has been recognized as a source of discrimination for decades (e.g., Till, 1980). Yet, the research and legal focus has been primarily limited to sexual harassment between members of the same organization (i.e., internal harassment) such as coworkers, supervisors, and subordinates. Only a few studies (Gettman & Gelfand, 2007; Morganson, 2008; Yagil, 2008) have emerged in the literature to examine customer sexual harassment (CSH). CSH is defined as unwanted sexual advances or sexist remarks and behavior instigated by individuals who interface with the organization and contribute to its profit (e.g., clients, patrons, patients). Recent research has found that sexual harassment from customers occurs more frequently than, and explains significant incremental variance in outcomes beyond, internal sexual harassment (Gettman & Gelfand, 2007; Morganson & Major, 2008). For example, 86% of participants reported

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This dissertation adheres to the format of the *Journal of Applied Psychology*.

being sexually harassed by customers compared to 40-68% of workers who reported internal harassment (Gettman & Gelfand, 2007). In earlier research, Hughes and Tadic (1998) reported a similar finding; two thirds of the frontline customer service workers they surveyed reported experiencing CSH in the retail location where they worked. Another 40% experienced repeated incidents from the same customer. Evidence strongly suggests that CSH continues to be a frequent and ubiquitous problem that merits research.

CSH is viewed as a byproduct of power asymmetry and dependency in the customer-employee relationship (Fine, Shepherd, & Josephs, 1999; Gettman & Gelfand, 2007; Hughes & Tadic, 1998; Yagil, 2008). Yagil (2008) theorized that the antecedents of CSH are reflected in "organizational perceptions (e.g., denial of customer misbehavior, structure of service roles), customer motives (e.g., low levels of perceived risk), and role-related risk factors (e.g., dependence on customers, working outside the organization, climate of informality)" (p. 141). The dynamics of the work environment impact the occurrence of CSH.

CSH has been linked with numerous outcomes. Qualitative data from Hughes and Tadic's (1998) study of 152 women's responses to CSH found that the most commonly reported feelings following CSH were embarrassment, anger, worry, fear, illness, and danger. Less common responses including feeling unaffected, viewing CSH as "something to deal with," and experiencing flattery or guilt. Gettman and Gelfand (2007) found that CSH was directly negatively associated with job satisfaction and health satisfaction. It was directly positively related to psychological distress, stress in general, and employee withdrawal from the client. Indirect outcomes included reduced affective commitment and increased turnover intentions. Morganson and Major (2008) found that

CSH significantly negatively predicted satisfaction with others at work, satisfaction with one's supervisor, physical health, and mental health. More recently, CSH was positively related to burnout and loyalty organizational citizenship behavior (Morganson, Lauzun, & Major, 2010). Taken together, these findings underline the noxious individual and organizational effects of CSH.

Morganson (2008) examined CSH through a psychological contract theory framework. In a sample of 420 women customer service workers, CSH was significantly positively related to perceptions of psychological contract breach, suggesting that workers who are harassed by customers may perceive the organization as failing them. Psychological contract breach and CSH interacted to predict affective commitment. The results of this study suggest that CSH may discourage women from particular jobs, and may lead them to "adaptively" endure sexist treatment. This treatment may be an implicit or explicit part of the psychological contract. CSH is a barrier to the career development of women that sometimes operates covertly. The types of jobs that women are selected into and the set of expectations that they form as part of their employment relationship may camouflage the sexist treatment they endure.

While research has uncovered CSH antecedents and outcomes (Gettman & Gelfand, 2007; Morganson, 2008; Morganson & Major, 2008; Morganson & Major, 2009), less is known about the process variables through which CSH impacts outcomes. Morganson et al. (2010) is one exception. Social support was examined as a buffer of the relationship between CSH and outcomes (i.e., satisfaction with others at work and two forms of organizational citizenship behavior, civic virtue and loyalty). Social support buffered the negative impact of CSH on satisfaction with others at work. Despite the lack

of research in this area, process variables are critical because they potentially provide insight into how to mitigate the negative effects of CSH. In particular, coping with CSH has been unexplored in the research literature. This dissertation comprises two studies that sought to fill the void by examining how customer service workers cope with CSH. The first study sought to operationalize CSH coping by adapting a measure of coping with general sexual harassment and the second study used the measure to test a model.

CHAPTER II

STUDY 1: OPERATIONALIZING COPING WITH CSH

Coping with Sexual Harassment

Coping with sexual harassment from organizational members is generally expected to be similar to coping with sexual harassment from customers. Both internal sexual harassment and CSH comprise the same behaviors (Gettman & Gelfand, 2007) and share similar nomological networks (cf. Gettman & Gelfand, 2007; Morganson, Lauzun, et al., 2010; Willness, Steel, & Lee, 2007). Both constitute unwanted sexual attention and sexist remarks encountered in the course of performing one's job duties. Thus, the present study drew from previous research and theory on coping with sexual harassment to operationalize a measure of coping with CSH.

Fitzgerald, Swan, and Fischer (1995) borrowed from Lazarus and Folkman's (1984) framework to distinguish between internal (i.e., aimed at managing cognitions and feelings) and external coping strategies (i.e., aim to control the harassing behavior). Gutek and Koss (1993) referred to a similar distinction calling the strategies "indirect" (e.g. ignoring, avoiding, evading) and "direct" (e.g., confronting) responses, respectively. Gutek and Koss (1993) also expanded upon the typology to distinguish between individual responses and responses involving others.

More recently, researchers have proposed two multidimensional taxonomies of coping with sexual harassment. First, Knapp, Faley, Ekeberg, and Dubois' (1997) developed Gutek and Koss's (1993) typology more fully, suggesting four responses to sexual harassment that are categorized as self versus supported responses and self- versus

initiator-focused strategies. The four types of coping include avoidance-denial, confrontation-negotiation, social coping, and advocacy seeking.

Second, Magley noted the lack of empirical categorizations of coping with sexual harassment (Magley, 2002; Magley, Hulin, Fitzgerald, & DeNardo, 1999). She examined the factor structure of Fitzgerald's Coping with Harassment Questionnaire (CHQ; Fitzgerald, 1990), identifying two dimensions. The behavioral/cognitive dimension involves approaching the aggressor and/or situation (i.e., behavioral coping), or managing the emotions associated with harassment using internal strategies (i.e., cognitive coping). Expanding upon previous research, Magley identified a second dimension, engagement/disengagement, which involves approaching versus avoiding the perpetrator or reality in some way. Magley's (2002) characterization of coping with sexual harassment is depicted in Figure 1.

	Engagement	Disengagement
Behavioral	**Examples:** •Assertion •Seeking organizational relief	**Examples:** •Avoidance •Social support seeking
Cognitive	**Examples:** •Re-labeling •Appeasement •Self-blame	**Examples:** •Denial •Detachment •Endurance

Figure 1. Example coping strategies by category from Magley (2002).

In sum, coping has been conceptualized in various ways. Despite the various names for coping strategies, the typologies share considerable theoretical overlap. In particular, they share the dimension that Fitzgerald et al. (1995) termed internal/external

coping. In other coping models, the theoretically similar dimension is indirect vs. direct (Gutek & Koss, 1993), self vs. initiator focus (Knapp et al., 1997), and cognitive vs. behavioral coping (Magley, 2002), each respectively. The common dimension is consistent with the seminal distinction in the general coping literature between problem-focused (i.e., coping strategies directed at managing the source of the stress) and emotion-focused coping (i.e., coping strategies aimed at managing the emotions associated with the stress; Folkman & Lazarus, 1991).

Empirical sexual harassment literature has found some support for internal and external factors of coping. Magley (2002) found support for such factors across 10 sub-samples including public utility workers, university staff and faculty, agricultural workers, undergraduate and graduate students, Italian nurses, and military personnel. Moreover, she noted that the factors are comparable to those in existing coping research (e.g., Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Moos, 1992; Moos & Schaefer, 1993).

In a test of Knapp et al.'s (1997) model of coping, Wasti and Cortina (2002) performed a cluster analysis and found a five-type structure using 4 samples of working women from three cultures and two occupational classes. Categories included denial, avoidance, negotiation, social coping, and advocacy-seeking. The higher order clusters bear some resemblance to Fitzgerald and colleagues' (Fitzgerald, 1990; Fitzgerald, Swan, et al., 1995) distinction between internal and external strategies. In the Anglo-American and Turk samples, negotiation (e.g., making it clear the perpetrator was wrong), avoidance (e.g., staying away from the perpetrator), advocacy seeking (e.g., making a formal complaint), and social coping (e.g., talking with someone about the situation) shared a higher order factor structure. This group of strategies can be roughly categorized

as external coping. The second higher order factor structure to emerge from cluster analysis resembled internal coping. It included only denial items, such as "I just put up with it" and "I tried to forget it." Consistent with previous coping research and theory, internal, and external coping were expected to constitute factors of coping with CSH.

In the general coping literature, the distinction between problem and emotion-focused coping is most common; however, empirically derived coping taxonomies often include a social factor (Folkman & Moskowitz, 2004). For example, Amirkhan (1990) and Carver, Scheier, and Weintraub (1989) both empirically identified a social coping factor. Likewise, in the sexual harassment coping literature, recall that Knapp et al. (1997) included social coping as one of four categories of coping behavior. In Wasti and Cortina's (2002) study, social support joined external strategies in the Anglo-American and Turkish samples; however, it joined denial (an internal strategy) in the Hispanic sample.

Data suggest that social coping may be considered a factor of coping, unique from internal and external factors. Wasti and Cortina's (2002) inconsistent exploratory factor loadings support the notion that social support constitutes its own factor. Additionally, in almost all samples included in Magley's (2002) research, social coping appeared as an outlying point on multidimensional scaling plots of coping factor structures. Thus, social was expected to constitute a type of coping independent of internal and external coping strategies.

Hypothesis 1. Internal, external, and social coping constitute distinct factors of CSH coping.

Retaliation as a Coping Strategy

Although the stimulus (i.e., sexually harassing behavior) is similar when comparing CSH to harassment between organizational members, the context of the behavior differs. Grandey, Kern, and Frone (2007) noted that employee exchanges with customers tend to be more uneven than exchanges involving other employees. For example, customers have more control over future interactions than employees. Customers tend to be in a greater position of power due to service norms and expectations. Another key distinguishing factor of the customer interface is that the emotional exchange of customer service encounters are frequently part of the product itself (e.g., service with a smile; Hochschild, 1983). Given the unique conditions of CSH, it is reasonable to expect that individuals cope with CSH in additional ways that are not represented in existing measures of coping with sexual harassment.

In particular, anecdotal evidence suggests that retaliation is a coping strategy for dealing with CSH. In focus groups conducted to acquire pilot data for the present research, customer service workers reported retaliating against customers in response to CSH. For example, one participant shared a story of a waitress who under-poured customer liquor and overcharged for drinks in response to CSH. Other participants reported intentionally delaying service and "accidentally/on purpose" losing the harassing customer's paperwork after a customer left an inappropriate message or blew a kiss.

Research has supported retaliation as a response to customer aggression. Recent empirical research found that retaliation is a relatively common response to customer aggression (e.g., Skarlicki, van Jaarsveld, & Walker, 2008). A number of studies have examined retaliation by employing an organizational justice theory framework (e.g.,

Ambrose, Seabright, & Schminke, 2002; Greenberg, 1990; Skarlicki & Folger, 1997), which asserts that workers' attitudes and behaviors originate from comparisons to others or to a prevailing standard. Interactional justice refers to the perceived fairness of the interpersonal treatment from others. Within interactional justice, interpersonal justice (i.e., showing concern for individuals and respecting them as people who have dignity) is the most relevant to retaliation. Retaliation is frequently a response to injustice (Ambrose et al., 2002; Greenberg, 1990; Skarlicki & Folger, 1997). As Bies and Tripp (1998) point out, demeaning treatment is a motive for revenge. According to Folger and Skarlicki (1998), "interactional justice (especially lack of interpersonal sensitivity) takes paramount importance in predicting retaliation and aggression in the workplace" (p. 43). Indeed, Skarlicki et al. (2008) showed that interpersonal injustice from customers relates to customer-directed sabotage. Due to norms of customer sovereignty, the general (i.e., non-sexual) aggression literature suggests that covert retaliation is a more common response than overt retaliation (Grandey et al., 2007).

Retaliation maps onto existing coping taxonomies. "Gaining revenge" emerged as a strategy for coping with customer aggression. The authors state that "[This category] portrays deeds by frontline workers that are performed with the intention of gaining some form of retribution over deviant customers" (Reynolds & Harris, 2006, p. 100). For example, in a qualitative study, service workers reported deliberately sneezing over the deviant customer's food (Reynolds & Harris, 2006). Coping has been studied for decades (Folkman & Moskowitz, 2004) and provides a strong theoretical framework for retaliation research.

Retaliation is a way to restore equity, restore power, or to vent frustration (Ambrose et al., 2002). In pilot research for this study, customer service workers discussed how retaliation was a source of self-gratification. It gives the employee an "upper hand" and constitutes the employee's refusal to passively endure mistreatment. One participant in the pilot study reported that retaliation was "an ego thing." It was viewed as a way of "not accepting being treated like dirt." These findings suggest that retaliation is aimed at managing emotions and feelings.

Although retaliation is similar to internal coping in that it aims to manage the emotions associated with the stressor, it differs from internal coping in a fundamental way – retaliation is not passive. Rather, retaliation is a way to assert one's self and to restore justice in the eyes of the sexual harassment target. In this way, retaliation is quite unlike internal coping strategies (e.g., ignoring, avoiding, evading). Inasmuch as retaliation involves taking direct action, it is similar to external coping. However, unlike external coping, it does not involve trying to control the harassing behavior. Also in contrast to external coping, which aims to control the harassing behavior, retaliation is generally done covertly. Unlike social coping, retaliation can be done independently. Thus, retaliation is unique from internal, external, and social coping strategies.

Hypothesis 2. Retaliation items will constitute a fourth coping factor.

In sum, this study predicted a four-factor model of coping with CSH. Table 2 provides operational definitions and a summary for the theoretical basis for the proposed coping categories. Additionally, the predicted factors for each item are indicated in Appendix A. Retaliation items are listed in Appendix B.

Table 1
Taxonomy of CSH Coping and Literature Basis from Pilot Research

Coping Strategy and Definition	Research and Theoretical Basis
Internal coping: Coping strategies aimed at managing cognitions, emotions, and feelings. E.g., trying not to get upset, denying the experience, assuming that the customer means well.	• Internal coping (Fitzgerald, Swan, et al., 1995) • Emotion-focused coping (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984) • Indirect coping (Gutek & Koss, 1993) • Self-focused strategies (Knapp et al., 1997) • Cognitive strategies (Magley, 2002)
External coping: Coping strategies aimed at confronting the source of distress, particularly the CSH perpetrator. This type of coping involves taking action in some manner. E.g., reporting, confronting the customer about their behavior, or avoiding encounters with a perpetrator.	• External coping (Fitzgerald, Swan, et al., 1995) • Problem-focused coping (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984) • Direct coping (Gutek & Koss, 1993) • Initiator-focused strategies (Knapp et al., 1997) • Behavioral strategies (Magley, 2002)
Social coping: Coping by seeking support from others. E.g., talking about the incident or asking advice.	• Self vs. other strategies (Gutek & Koss, 1993) • Self vs. supported responses (Knapp et al., 1997) • Social support seeking (Magley, 2002)
Retaliation coping: Covertly "striking back". E.g., using sarcasm, intentionally providing bad service.	• Customer-directed sabotage (Skarlicki et al., 2008) • Gaining revenge (Reynolds & Harris, 2006)

CHAPTER III

STUDY 1: METHOD

Participants

Researchers, theorists, and legal experts have characterized sexual harassment as a form of sexual discrimination, which results from both men's economic power over women and gender roles that define men as sexual agents and women as objects (E.E.O.C., 1980; Gutek, 1985). Research indicates that men are less likely than women to experience sexual harassment and are less likely to label their experiences as such (Magley, Waldo, Drasgow, & Fitzgerald, 1999; Riger, 1991). Thus, consistent with prior studies (e.g., Gettman & Gelfand, 2007; Wasti & Cortina, 2002), the present study consisted of an exclusively female sample.

Participants were recruited from Sona, the Psychology Department's human subject pool. Sona is a system that allows students enrolled in psychology courses to participate in research in exchange for extra credit as permitted by individual instructors. The online survey was hosted through Inquisite. Students were screened in an initial survey before they were allowed to participate. Only participants who indicated that they were employed and were over the age of 18 had access to participate. In addition, the survey was advertised for customer service workers only.

Data were cleaned. All participants who worked less than 10 hours per week or reported that they did not interface with customers were deleted. Free response variables (e.g., tenure, hours per week) were recoded to be numeric and to use a consistent scale (e.g., responses in months were recoded to be fractions of a year). Any duplicate

responses were deleted. All data were visually scanned for oddities (e.g., participants responding to all items with "1's", participants endorsing sexual harassment items but indicating that they chose "no" to all of the questions on the sexual harassment page).

A total of 97% of participants reported experiencing at least one sexually harassing behavior and completed the CSH coping items. The final sample size was 200. This sample size is said to be "fair" (Comrey & Lee, 1992). Furthermore, the final sample size exceeded sample size standards for factor analysis indicating that when high loading marker variables are present (>.80), large sample sizes are not required; instead, about 150 cases are sufficient (Guadagnoli & Velicer, 1988).

Participants were an average of 22.8 years old (SD = 6.7) and worked for their company an average of 2.0 years (SD = 2.3). They worked 26.2 (SD = 10.9) hours per week. On average, participants were required to work with customers for the majority of their time; they interfaced with customers face-to-face, over the phone, and electronically (e.g., by email or messaging) 83.0%, 16.4%, and 4.5% of the time, respectively. They reported holding a variety of jobs. Examples included reference desk assistant, barista, hostess, administrative assistant, nurse, cashier, sales associate, server, delivery driver and server. The majority of participants had attended some college (64.0%) and intended to ultimately obtain a bachelor's (25.6%), master's (38.2%), or doctoral level degree (31.7%). Most reported an individual annual income under $15,000 (73.7%). Most were Caucasian (64.5%) or African American (29.5%). Most of the participants were single (84.5%). Frequencies of participant responses on nominal demographic variables are presented in Table 2.

Table 2
Frequency Table of Demographics

Variable	*n*	%
Educational Background		
High school diploma	11	5.5
Some college	128	64.0
Associate's degree	50	25.0
Bachelor's degree	8	4.0
Some graduate school	1	0.5
Final Education Intended		
Some college	2	1.0
Associate's degree	2	1.0
Bachelor's degree	51	25.5
Some graduate school	5	2.5
Master's degree	76	38.0
PhD, PsyD, or MD	63	31.5
Individual Annual Income		
Less than $5,000	49	24.5
$5,000 to $9,999	68	34.0
$10,000 to $14,999	29	14.5
$15,000 to $19,999	14	7.0
$20,000 to $24,999	14	7.0
$25,000 to $29,000	5	2.5
$30,000 to $39,999	7	2.5
$40,000 to $49,999	9	4.5
$50,000 or above	3	1.5
Race*		
Caucasian	129	64.5
African American	59	29.5
Asian	9	4.5
Hispanic	8	4.0
Native American	8	4.0
Other	11	5.5
Relationship status		
Single	169	84.5
Married or living with partner	30	15.0

Note. $N = 200$. Some variables do not sum to 200 due to missing data.
* Participants checked all races that applied. Some participants indicated multiple races.

Procedure

To avoid response bias, the term "sexual harassment" was not used on any recruiting announcements. Instead, the survey was generally described as follows: "The survey asks about a number of work perceptions and experiences that are both positive and negative to explain how they relate to behavior, attitudes, and well-being." It was essential to avoid using the term "sexual harassment" because research evidence suggests priming may occur if the term is used. Numerous studies have documented a difference between experiencing offensive unwelcome, sex-related behaviors and labeling the incidents as sexual harassment (e.g., Cortina, Swan, Fitzgerald, & Waldo, 1998; Magley, Hulin, et al., 1999).

Participants were assured of confidentiality prior to participating. In order to be linked to the coping questions, participants needed to endorse at least one form of sexual harassment. Once they completed the survey, their web browser linked them to a separate survey where they input their information for extra credit. To protect participant anonymity, participants' responses to the questionnaire were gathered and stored separately from their identifying information. The survey took less than 20 minutes. Participants were awarded a half credit in exchange for participation. Credits are accumulated and used for extra credit in Psychology courses at each instructor's discretion. This study was granted exempt status from the College of Sciences Human Subjects Committee (#010-011-001).

Measures

Coping with CSH. The Coping with Harassment Questionnaire (e.g., Fitzgerald, 1990) assessed CSH coping (Appendix A). The measure contains 22 items. As in prior research (Cortina & Wasti, 2005; Wasti & Cortina, 2002), participants were asked to consider the experience that made the greatest impression upon them. Items were adapted to refer to "the customer(s)" as the harassment perpetrator instead of "him/them." Additionally, although Fitzgerald (1990) originally used a 3-point scale consisting of "yes," "?," and "no," a 5-point scale was used in this study. As adapted by other researchers (Magley, 2002; Wasti & Cortina, 2002), the response options ranged from 1 *(not at all descriptive)* to 5 *(extremely descriptive).* In past research, Cortina and Wasti (2005) reported an average alpha of .83 across coping facets in an Anglo-American professional sample. The original CHQ contained only four social coping items, which have exhibited inconsistent results and cross-loadings (Magley, 2002; Wasti & Cortina, 2002). Additionally, the original CHQ was deficient in items representing positive types of internal coping. Thus, four social coping items and three internal coping items were added. These additional items were adapted from Carver et al.'s (1989) coping inventory.

Retaliation items. Retaliation items were mixed with and embedded within the CHQ measure. Retaliation items were developed based on a pilot study consisting of two focus groups of seven and nine customer service workers from the target population that participated for extra credit. Examples of participant job titles included server, sales representative, receptionist, billing specialist, and cashier. The pilot study was intended to develop content valid items representing customer retaliation behavior across various service contexts. Skarlicki et al. (2008) developed a measure of customer-directed

sabotage, but it was specific to a call center context. Skarlicki et al.'s (2008) wording was used to solicit focus group responses: "Research suggests that when employees are treated unfairly or disrespectfully at work, they tend to find ways to 'strike back' and somehow even the score. Think back on the last 6 to 12 months and recall a time when you or someone with whom you work retaliated due to unfair treatment." (p. 1339). Results from the two focus groups were categorized and used to create the 16 items in Appendix B.

Data Analyses

Parallel analysis (Horn, 1965) was used to determine how many factors to retain. Parallel analysis helps reduce the chances of retaining factors that are likely to have emerged by chance (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). It offers a less subjective alternative to other factor determination mechanisms such as the "elbow test" for scree plots. First, randomly generated datasets are created with the same number of variables and cases as the sample to be analyzed. Then, principal components analysis is used on the random datasets and eigenvalues are calculated for each analysis. Eigenvalues are averaged for each factor. The user must then compare the eigenvalues from the sample data to the average eigenvalues from the randomly generated data. The user retains the number of factors in the sample data in which the eigenvalues exceed those from the randomly generated data. Parallel analysis concerns the extraction phase of factor analysis (Hayton, Allen, & Scarpello, 2004; Zwick & Velicer, 1986). It was used prior to the rotation and interpretation phase.

Next, the solution was rotated for interpretation and to determine which items should be dropped. Direct Oblimin rotation was used to rotate orthogonal factors onto

oblique positions. It simplifies factors by minimizing cross-products of loadings. Delta was set at zero (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). An oblique rotation method was most appropriate given theory indicating that individuals cope using multiple coping strategies (Cortina & Wasti, 2005). Oblique rotation should be used unless the researcher believes the underlying processes are almost independent (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007).

CHAPTER IV

STUDY 1: RESULTS

Means, standard deviations, skewness, and kurtosis are reported in Appendix G. For all items, the minimum and maximum scores were 1 and 5, respectively. Prior to factor analysis, outliers were identified on seven items. On average each of the seven items had 13 outliers (SD = 3.64). Items with outliers included five retaliation items (items 29, 31, 38, 39, and 42 in Appendix B) and two items from the CHQ ("I blamed myself for what happened" and "I filed a grievance"). Outliers were examined to determine if a subset of participants endorsed these items. However, the outliers did not appear to be caused by a subset of the population. Rather, these items all had low base rates. In most cases, any item that was endorsed at all (i.e., the participant responded with at least a 2 out of 5, "somewhat descriptive") was as an outlier. In an effort to create a measure of CSH coping as concisely representative of common coping strategies as possible, these items were dropped from further analysis.

Using sample data, all remaining coping items were entered in a factor analysis. Ninety-fifth percentile random data eigenvalues were estimated using 5,000 iterations. The sample-based eigenvalues were then contrasted with the random data eigenvalues generated by parallel analysis (Table 3), which suggested five factors should be retained. Thus, prior to rotation, extraction was fixed to five factors. The resulting factor loadings are presented in Table 4.

Table 3
Parallel Analysis Results

Factor	Random Data Eigenvalues	Sample Data Eigenvalues
1	1.91	**9.35**
2	1.79	**3.80**
3	1.70	**3.04**
4	1.63	**2.20**
5	1.56	**1.59**
6	**1.50**	1.21
7	**1.44**	1.18

Table 4
Coping Factor Loadings for Five Forced Factors

		Factor				
		1	2	3	4	5
	1. Social Coping					
S	Talked about it with someone I trusted.	**.86**	-.07	-.11	.03	.07
S	Asked a friend for advice.	**.83**	.09	-.00	.07	-.05
S	Talked with friends for understanding and support.	**.81**	.03	.00	.02	.10
S	Discussed my frustrations with friends or family.	**.79**	.06	-.09	-.01	.02
S	~~Asked people who have had similar experiences what they did.~~	**.77**	.08	-.06	-.05	-.02
S	Tried to get advice from someone about what to do.	**.76**	-.01	-.11	-.10	-.08
S	Vented to my coworkers.	**.66**	.17	.11	-.08	-.02
I	~~Tried to grow as a person as a result of the experience.~~	**.44**	-.05	-.08	-.28	.16
I	~~Held off doing anything about it until the situation permitted.~~	***.30***	-.02	-.03	*-.29*	*.24*
	2. Retaliation					
R	Made the customer wait (e.g., placing them on hold for a long period of time).	.20	**.75**	.06	-.03	-.18
R	Pretended to be helpful in an obnoxious way.	.13	**.74**	-.04	.24	.07
R	Told the customer that I handled something that I did not handle.	.00	**.70**	-.04	.17	.14
R	Treated the customer just as he/she had mistreated me.	.14	**.68**	-.02	.03	-.08

Table 4 (continued)
Coping Factor Loadings for Five Forced Factors

		Factor				
		1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
R	Acted sarcastically toward the customer.	-.07	**.63**	.15	-.17	.08
R	"Acted dumb" to avoid helping the customer.	.04	**.59**	.02	.02	.29
R	Refused to assist the customer (e.g., hanging up on them).	-.02	**.56**	-.24	-.23	-.29
R	~~Intentionally provided the customer(s) with lower quality service.~~	.11	***.52***	.11	*-.34*	-.22
R	~~Intentionally misrouted or misdirected the customer.~~	-.18	**.48**	-.03	-.15	.28
R	~~Told a customer I could not help them just because I did not want to help them.~~	-.16	***.46***	*-.32*	-.24	-.13
	3. Reporting					
E	Reported him/them.	.23	.03	**-.74**	-.06	.15
E	Made a formal complaint.	.25	.06	**-.70**	.03	.17
E	Talked with a manager.	*.33*	-.07	***-.68***	-.05	.05
E	~~Let the customer(s) know I didn't like what was happening.~~	.03	.16	***-.49***	*-.42*	-.09
E	~~Asked the customer(s) to leave me alone.~~	-.04	.24	***-.43***	*-.40*	-.22
	4. Avoidance					
E	Tried to stay away from the customer(s).	.14	.02	-.04	**-.80**	-.13
E	Tried to avoid being alone with the customer(s).	.20	-.05	-.02	**-.77**	-.07
E	Stayed out of the customer(s) way as much as possible.	.23	.00	.00	**-.75**	-.05
E	Made excuses so the customer(s) would leave me alone.	-.02	.02	.21	**-.57**	.17
R	~~Refused to comply with the customer's requests.~~	-.16	.11	-.25	**-.49**	.11
I	~~Restrained myself from doing anything too quickly.~~	.09	-.11	-.19	**-.39**	.28
I	~~Just tried to forget about.~~	.10	.10	*.39*	***-.39***	.12
	5. Internal Coping					
E	Tried not to hurt the customer(s) feelings.	.01	.07	-.09	.01	**.82**
I	Assumed the customer(s) meant well.	-.03	.09	-.05	.06	**.61**
E	Tried not to make the customer(s) angry.	.31	-.05	-.05	-.14	**.55**
I	Just put up with it.	.24	.01	.31	-.05	**.63**
I	~~Told myself it wasn't important.~~	.05	.07	*.36*	*-.34*	***.38***

Note. Bolded factor loading indicates the factor upon which the item loaded. Italicized factor loadings denote cross-loadings and/or weak loadings. The first column shows the originally anticipated factor for the item: E = external, I = internal, S = social, R = retaliation. Items with strikethrough were dropped from subsequent analysis.

Hypothesis 1, which predicted that internal, external, and social coping constitute distinct factors of CSH, was partially supported. In Table 4, social coping is represented by the first factor and internal coping is represented in the fifth factor. Contrary to expectations, external coping items yielded two factors (numbers 3 and 4 in Table 4); reporting items loaded separately. Thus, the factors were named "avoidance" and "reporting." Hypothesis 2 was supported; retaliation items comprised the second factor.

Items were considered cross-loading if loadings exceeded .32 on more than one factor (Comrey & Lee, 1992). One item, "Held off doing anything about it until the situation permitted," did not load on any factor and was dropped. On the *social coping factor*, "Tried to grow as a person as a result of the experience" had an unexpected primary loading, but cross-loaded and was dropped. One social coping item "Asked people who have had similar experiences what they did" was dropped to reduce subscale length. It was similar in content to other social coping items (e.g., "Asked a friend for advice" and "Tried to get advice from someone about what to do"). Additionally, dropping this item did not impact the subscale alpha (.90).

In an effort to reduce items in the *retaliation factor*, the three lowest loading retaliation items were dropped (this included one cross-loaded item). On the *reporting factor*, one item, "Talked with a manager," had primary loadings on the reporting factor as expected but cross-loaded on social coping. This item was retained to maintain more than 3 items in the reporting factor. Two items, "Let the customer(s) know I didn't like what was happening" and "Asked the customer(s) to leave me alone," cross-loaded and were dropped.

A retaliation item, "Refused to comply with the customer's requests," loaded on the *avoidance coping factor* and was dropped. Additionally, two internal coping items, "Just tried to forget about it" and "Restrained myself from doing anything too quickly," unexpectedly loaded on the external coping factor with a weak loading and were dropped. On the *internal coping factor*, "Told myself it wasn't important" cross-loaded and was dropped.

The factor analysis was rerun after dropping items and with five fixed factors. The resulting eigenvalues and factor loadings are presented in Tables 5 and 6. All items loaded on their respective factors.

Table 5
Eigenvalues and Percentage Variance Explained for Final Solution

Factor	Eigenvalue	% of Variance
1	7.07	28.29
2	2.90	11.61
3	2.30	9.18
4	1.96	7.84
5	1.38	5.52

Table 6
Factor Loadings for Final Solution

	Factor				
	1	2	3	4	5
Social Coping (α = .90)					
Talked about it with someone I trusted.	**.86**	-.08	.06	.04	.12
Asked a friend for advice.	**.85**	.07	-.03	.08	.03
Talked with friends for understanding and support.	**.84**	.01	.11	-.00	-.02
Discussed my frustrations with friends or family.	**.77**	.06	.02	-.04	.09
Tried to get advice from someone about what to do.	**.73**	-.03	-.07	-.11	.19
Vented to my coworkers.	**.62**	.17	.06	-.14	-.09

Table 6 (continued)
Factor Loadings for Final Solution

	Factor				
	1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Retaliation (α = .80)					
Made the customer wait (e.g., placing them on hold for a long period of time).	.11	**.75**	-.16	-.14	-.02
Pretended to be helpful in an obnoxious way.	.04	**.74**	.10	.18	.09
Told the customer that I handled something that I did not handle.	-.04	**.72**	.13	.09	.03
Treated the customer just as he/she had mistreated me.	.17	**.71**	-.12	.02	-.05
Acted sarcastically toward the customer.	-.02	**.65**	.03	-.19	-.19
"Acted dumb" to avoid helping the customer.	-.04	**.56**	.31	-.03	.10
Refused to assist the customer (e.g., hanging up on them).	-.06	**.55**	-.31	-.28	.21
Internal Coping (α = .72)					
Tried not to hurt the customer(s) feelings.	-.06	.05	**.85**	-.05	.12
Tried not to make the customer(s) angry.	.22	-.08	**.64**	-.19	.11
Just put up with it.	.21	-.02	**.62**	-.08	-.27
Assumed the customer(s) meant well.	-.01	.07	**.60**	.06	.05
Avoidance Coping (α = .84)					
Tried to stay away from the customer(s).	.08	-.01	-.07	**-.84**	.09
Tried to avoid being alone with the customer(s).	.13	-.06	-.03	**-.81**	.06
Stayed out of the customer(s) way as much as possible.	.17	.00	-.01	**-.80**	.03
Made excuses so the customer(s) would leave me alone.	-.01	.00	.24	**-.63**	-.24
Reporting (α = .85)					
Made a formal complaint.	.07	.04	.11	-.02	**.84**
Reported him/them.	.10	.03	.03	-.06	**.83**
Talked with a manager.	.25	-.07	-.01	-.08	**.72**

The component correlation matrix is reported in Table 7. As shown, retaliation significantly correlated with social coping, ($r(198) = .15, p < .05$), avoidance coping ($r(198) = -.22, p < .001$), and reporting ($r(198) = .17, p < .01$). This generally supports convergent validity for retaliation.

Table 7

Component Correlation Matrix

Component	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
1. Social Coping	–				
2. Retaliation	.15*	–			
3. Internal Coping	.23***	.10[a]	–		
4. Avoidance Coping	-.34***	-.22***	-.19**	–	
5. Reporting	.29***	.17**	-.03	-.17**	–

Note. [a] $p < .10$, * $p < .05$, ** $p <. 01$, *** $p < .001$

CHAPTER V

STUDY 1: DISCUSSION

Although research has examined coping with sexual harassment at work, this study was the first to examine CSH coping. It was also the first to empirically examine retaliation toward the customer as a coping strategy. The results of Study 1 indicate that coping with CSH is a multidimensional phenomenon. As expected, service workers cope with CSH in ways that are consistent with coping with sexual harassment in general as well as service-specific ways (i.e., by retaliating against the harassing customer).

Hypothesis 1 predicted that internal, external, and social coping would constitute distinct CSH coping factors. Social coping explained the largest proportion of variance in the resulting factor structure. Yet, social coping is omitted from many influential coping taxonomies (e.g., Fitzgerald, Swan, et al., 1995; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984) and has been viewed as merely an example among other types of coping strategies rather than a factor in some taxonomies (e.g., Magley, 2002). The results of this study favor taxonomies that emphasize social coping as a dimension (e.g., Amirkhan, 1990; Carver et al., 1989; Gutek & Koss, 1993; Knapp et al., 1997). Social coping may be more important to dealing with CSH than to dealing with sexual harassment from organizational members. Harassment targets may view coworkers as more neutral when harassment is perpetrated by a customer compared to a fellow coworker or supervisor; thus, they may be more apt to speak with coworkers about their sexual harassment experience. Additionally, coworkers may lend a sympathetic ear because they are likely targets of CSH themselves. For these reasons, social coping may be particularly important to coping with CSH.

Internal and external coping were expected to emerge as factors based upon multiple taxonomies and prior studies with roughly similar dimensions. The second and forth factors of the final solution included external coping strategies – those that involve taking action with a focus on the source of distress. Unexpectedly, external coping broke into two factors: reporting and avoidance. While both of these external categories are focused on the harasser, reporting is a more assertive and social strategy than avoidance, which is both passive and independent. Although some theory suggests that reporting shares a common dimension with avoidance items (Magley, 2002), other researchers have purported that it is unique from other initiator-focused strategies (Knapp et al., 1997). As Knapp's taxonomy highlights, reporting may be unique from other external coping strategies because it requires the support of others, whereas other external coping strategies can be executed alone.

Internal coping strategies (i.e., those aimed at managing cognitions, feelings, and emotions) were represented by the third factor in the analysis. This factor contained what some researchers (e.g., Fitzgerald, 1990; Magley, 2002) have referred to as denial (e.g., "I assumed the customer meant well"), and appeasement (e.g., "I tried not to make the customer angry") items. Two appeasement items were originally expected to load on the external coping factor because of their focus on the initiator. However, they loaded with internal coping items and were reassigned to that factor. Both appeasement items concerned not upsetting the customer. They may be viewed as preventive emotion-focused coping strategies. That is, targets may try not to make the customer angry in an effort to avoid further harassment. These items are a future-oriented way of protecting one's feelings and emotions. Comparable forms of future-oriented coping have been

examined in the literature (e.g., Aspinwall & Taylor, 1997; Major & Morganson, 2011). Magley's (2002) taxonomy provides some literature precedence for including appeasement items as a type of internal coping. She grouped appeasement within the cognitive dimension, which is the dimension in her model that most parallels internal coping.

It is important to note that a number of expected internal and external coping items failed to load on a particular factor. Positive types of internal coping (e.g., "I tried to grow as a person as a result of the experience"), which were added to traditional CHQ items, dropped out. Positive forms of internal coping are plausible and likely; indeed, participants endorsed these items as a response to CSH. Future research should examine positive internal coping strategies in response to CSH. Perhaps beginning with qualitative research and testing numerous positive internal coping items would yield a cohesive subset of items.

Unexpectedly, external coping strategies that concerned confronting the harasser all dropped out. This result may be a function of the diverse population under study. For example, confrontation strategies may only be possible in autonomous customer service positions. Perhaps in a more homogeneous sample of service workers future research will find that confrontation strategies comprise a factor of coping with CSH.

Hypothesis 2, which predicted that retaliation would constitute a factor of coping with CSH, was fully supported. Providing evidence of discriminant validity, factor two of the final solution was comprised of retaliation items. The retaliation factor was significantly correlated with social, avoidance, and reporting coping strategies, providing some evidence of convergent validity for retaliation as a factor of coping. These findings

extend previous research, which has identified retaliation as a response to non-sexual forms of customer aggression (Reynolds & Harris, 2006; Skarlicki et al., 2008). As Reynolds and Harris (2006) suggest, retaliation is a way of coping by "gaining revenge." From the target's perspective, it may be a way of asserting power and refusing to passively endure mistreatment. Although Hypothesis 2 was supported, it is worth noting that many retaliation items had a low means and were skewed and kurtotic (see Appendix G). Like reporting, retaliation had a lower base rate than most other types of coping. Retaliation items with the lowest base rates were dropped. Thus, the current scale includes more common types of retaliation.

Retaliation is a coping strategy that did not emerge as a way of dealing with sexual harassment from individuals internal to the organization in previous research (Fitzgerald, 1990). It may be a strategy of coping with CSH that is unique from coping with internal sexual harassment that occurs due to the power dynamic between customers and service workers. Whereas the customer's power is legitimated by norms of sovereignty, the service employee reciprocates power because the customer depends upon the employee for goods and services. Furthermore, the customer-worker exchange is unique in both the quality of the relationship and the behavioral expectations for interactions (Grandey et al., 2007). Customer-employee relationships are more likely to be or feel anonymous and are associated with less of a chance of future interaction compared to employee-employee relationships. For these reasons, retaliation may be a unique way of coping with CSH (vs. internal harassment). Future research should compare responses to internal harassment and CSH to verify the extent to which retaliation is unique to CSH.

Conclusion

The results of Study 1 yielded a five-factor structure of CSH coping based on pilot data and previous sexual harassment coping research. The resulting factor solution included 24 items, which loaded on factors representing social coping, retaliation, avoidance, reporting, and internal coping. Each sub-scale demonstrated an adequate alpha reliability. The results provided both discriminant and convergent validity evidence for including retaliation as a factor of coping with CSH. Study 1 provided a concise, psychometrically strong measure for coping with CSH to be used in further research. Study 2 provided an opportunity for cross-validation on a separate sample.

CHAPTER VI

STUDY 2: EXAMINING THE EFFECTIVENESS OF CSH COPING STRATEGIES ACROSS CONTEXTS

"When a customer comes in and they are rude, it's like, you're employed to serve the customer. The customer acts like we're lower 'cause we're working and we're supposed to be 'the customer's always right', ya know? At least by doing retaliation – in my head, or whoever's head – it's like 'I'm not dirt. I'm not going to be treated like dirt. I'm not going to accept that!'"

– Anonymous pilot focus group participant discussing why customer service workers retaliate against harassers.

A key motivation for coping research is to determine if certain coping strategies are more or less effective at reducing stress in various circumstances in order to inform intervention and to assist people in coping with stress (Folkman & Moskowitz, 2004). While a number of studies have examined the antecedents of coping with sexual harassment (e.g., Malamut & Offermann, 2001; Wasti & Cortina, 2002), very little research has sought to evaluate the effectiveness of coping strategies. Moreover, research has not evaluated the effectiveness of coping strategies in the context of customer sexual harassment. Yet, coping is largely context specific. Toward filling the void in the research, Study 2 examined how coping strategies may be differentially effective in buffering the relationship between experiences of CSH and established CSH outcome variables.

The *contextual approach* (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984) guides a majority of the coping research (Folkman & Moskowitz, 2004). According to this approach, coping should be evaluated with consideration of the context. A strategy that is effective in one situation may be ineffective or even exacerbate stress in another situation. For example, problem-focused coping (i.e., coping strategies directed at managing the source of the stress) is likely to be ineffective or even adverse when the stressor is unchangeable because it involves expending energy and focusing on the stressor. Instead, emotion-focused coping (i.e., coping strategies aimed at managing the emotions associated with the stress; Folkman & Lazarus, 1991) is more likely to be effective in an unchangeable situation.

In a review article on women's responses to sexual harassment, Fitzgerald, Swan, and Fischer (1995) defined coping as the process of managing a stressor appraised as taxing or exceeding the resources of a person in a given situation. Consistent with the contextual approach, the authors reject the notion that coping can be mastered. They urge against confounding the process of coping with its outcome. Fitzgerald et al. (1995) presented coping as an interactive person-environment process referred to as the *Cognitive-Phenomenological Approach.* This approach recognizes that a variety of factors influence behavior in a stressful situation including personal resources (e.g., beliefs, commitments, behavioral skills), and personal and environmental constraints (Fitzgerald, Swan, et al., 1995).

Coping occurs through a two-stage cognitive appraisal process (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). *Primary appraisal* is concerned with evaluating the stimulus and determining whether it is threatening, whereas *secondary appraisal* consists of

determining the options for dealing with the conflict and evaluating the potential consequences of each coping option. The cognitive appraisal process is consistent with Fitzgerald and colleagues (1995) statement:

> "The way in which an individual will cope with potentially harassing situations depends on (1) her cognitive evaluation of the situation with respect to its significance for well-being (i.e., is it irrelevant, benign or threatening) and (2) the options that are realistically available, their costs and benefits, and what is at stake." (p. 126).

Malamut and Offerman (2001) found support for the appraisal process. According to their results, the degree to which a target labels their experience as sexual harassment and experiences psychological arousal and emotional reactions influences their choice of coping strategy.

Following the Cognitive-Phenomenological Approach, Fitzgerald, Swan, and Magley (1997) presented a model of the elements that influence the appraisal of sex-related behavior at work. The model states that the target's evaluation of the harassment (e.g., offensive, upsetting, frightening, etc.) is a function of individual factors (e.g., control, beliefs, resources), objective or stimulus factors (e.g., frequency, intensity, and duration of harassment) and contextual factors (e.g., climate, gender composition of the work group). They proposed that primary appraisal affects secondary appraisal, which determines how the target copes with the situation. Several studies provide empirical support for the notion that coping with sexual harassment is determined by individual, stimulus, and contextual factors (Bergman, Langhout, Palmieri, Cortina, & Fitzgerald, 2002; Gallus & Magley, 2009; Malamut & Offermann, 2001).

Focus of the Present Study

In the present study, coping was viewed as a psychological process leading to a variety of outcomes that impact service workers. The main goal of the study was to examine the effect of coping on outcomes. However, as the Cognitive-Phenomenological Model suggests, a large number of factors may moderate the relationship between CSH and outcomes. This study focused on two stimulus factors that were expected to moderate the impact of CSH coping on outcomes: CSH severity and client power. CSH severity and client power were selected for their theoretical value and their strong relevance to sexual harassment responses based on previous literature. Client power and severity have been widely examined in sexual harassment research and have demonstrated strong relationships with responses to sexual harassment (Cortina & Wasti, 2005; Gallus & Magley, 2009; Malamut & Offermann, 2001). Across genders, power and severity were the strongest predictors of reporting behavior in a study comparing the strength of predictors of responses to sexual harassment (Gallus & Magley, 2008).

I chose to focus on two individual health-related outcomes, job-related emotional exhaustion and posttraumatic stress. In a recent meta-analysis (Willness et al., 2007), posttraumatic stress was one of the most impactful outcomes of sexual harassment. Emotional exhaustion is central in the customer aggression literature (e.g., Ben-Zur & Yagil, 2005; Grandey, Dickter, & Sin, 2004; Grandey et al., 2007; Harris & Reynolds, 2003). Figure 2 summarizes the hypothesized relationships. Outcomes in the model are discussed in more detail in the sections that follow.

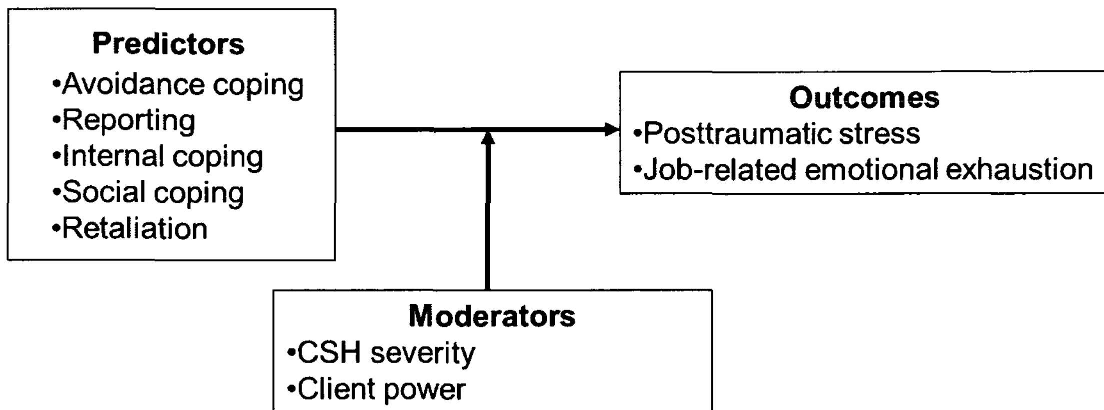

Figure 2. Hypothesized model of CSH coping.

Outcomes

Posttraumatic stress. Early sexual harassment researchers noted similarities between the aftermath of sexual harassment and the symptoms that characterize Post-Traumatic Stress Disorder (PTSD) as defined in the American Psychological Association's *Diagnostic and Statistical Manual* (Gutek & Koss, 1993). PTSD is an anxiety disorder that follows a traumatic event. Symptoms include memory flashbacks, nightmares, sleeplessness, avoidance of thoughts and feelings about the traumatic event, and hyperarousal (American Psychological Association, 1994). Some researchers have viewed sexual harassment as a diagnosable psychological trauma (Avina & O'Donohue, 2002; Palmieri & Fitzgerald, 2005). Researchers have identified a positive relationship between sexual harassment and psychological distress (Fitzgerald, Drasgow, Hulin, Gelfand, & Magley, 1997; Harned & Fitzgerald, 2002). Gettman and Gelfand (2007) found a positive relationship between CSH and posttraumatic stress. As Harris and Reynolds (2003) pointed out, stress disorders from enduring customer mistreatment may elicit memory flashbacks, anxiety, and sleeplessness, even years later.

Job-related emotional exhaustion. Job-related emotional exhaustion is a type of job-related burnout. Job-related burnout is "a syndrome of emotional exhaustion and cynicism that occurs frequently among individuals who do 'people-work of some kind'" (Maslach & Jackson, 1981, p. 99). Shirom (2003) defines burnout as an "affective reaction to ongoing stress whose core content is the gradual depletion over time of an individuals' intrinsic resources, including expression of emotional exhaustion, physical fatigue, and cognitive weariness" (Shirom, 2003, p. 245).

According to Maslach's (Maslach, 1982; Maslach & Jackson, 1981) conceptualization, burnout consists of three dimensions: emotional exhaustion, cynicism and reduced professional efficacy. Emotional exhaustion refers to depletion of emotional resources. Cynicism refers to developing negative and cynical attitudes toward others at work. Reduced professional efficacy refers to a decline in competence and productivity. As Shirom (2003) noted in her recent review of burnout, emotional exhaustion has been consistently viewed as the core component of Maslach's work. Job-related emotional exhaustion refers to the stress component of burnout. In contrast, the latter two dimensions of burnout (i.e., cynicism and professional efficacy) are less commonly known and are somewhat problematic; they have changed in both name and conceptualization. Additionally there has been some debate as to whether or not the three factors should be grouped together and how professional efficacy maps onto similar concepts (e.g., self-efficacy; Shirom, 2003). Meta-analytic evidence finds that job-related emotional exhaustion is best predictor of work-related stress among the three dimensions (Lee & Ashforth, 1996). For these reasons, this study limited focus to job-related emotional exhaustion.

Several studies (Ben-Zur & Yagil, 2005; Grandey et al., 2004; Grandey et al., 2007; Harris & Reynolds, 2003) have found that customer-instigated aggression positively predicts job burnout, particularly job-related emotional exhaustion (Maslach & Jackson, 1981). Burnout is important because it predicts organizational outcomes including job performance and health outcomes (Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001). Literature precedence exists linking CSH to job-related emotional exhaustion; Morganson et al. (2010) found a positive relationship between the two.

Moderators

CSH severity. According to the general coping literature, more severe stressful events are met with a range of coping mechanisms (e.g., Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Sexual harassment severity increases as the frequency (Baker, Terpstra, & Larntz, 1990) and duration of the harassing behavior increase and as the type of harassing behavior escalates (e.g., from unwanted sexual harassment to quid pro quo harassment; Malamut & Offermann, 2001; Till, 1980). Sexual harassment severity strongly impacts targets' responses to CSH. Gallus and Magley (2009) compared predictors of reporting sexual harassment. They included stimulus, contextual, and individual predictors. Sexual harassment severity was the strongest predictor of whistle blowing. Similarly, in a study of 1,200 women, severity of sexual harassment experiences was the most important predictor of psychological distress (Collinsworth, Fitzgerald, & Drasgow, 2009).

A number of studies have found that severity impacts targets' responses to sexual harassment (e.g., Brooks & Perot, 1991; Cortina & Wasti, 2005). Severity is linked with more assertive, external coping styles (Cochran et al., 1999; Malamut & Offerman, 2001; (Cortina & Wasti, 2005), whereas less severe sexual harassment is associated with

passive, emotion-focused coping strategies (e.g., Cochran, Frazier, & Olson, 1997; Malamut & Offermann, 2001).

When CSH is severe, it may exceed targets' capacity to internalize treatment or deal with it on their own. Severe harassment may be upsetting and stressful to the point where it compels targets to take action by using an external coping strategy. Indeed, severe harassment tends to be recurring; taking action against the source of the harassment is often the only way to stop the mistreatment. When harassment is severe, avoidance and reporting coping were expected to be effective, whereas internal coping was expected to be relatively ineffective.

> *Hypothesis 3a:* CSH severity will moderate the relationship between avoidance coping and (i) posttraumatic stress and (ii) job-related emotional exhaustion. The relationship between avoidance coping and outcome variables will be stronger (i.e., avoidance coping will be more effective) when severity is higher.
>
> *Hypothesis 3b:* CSH severity will moderate the relationship between reporting and (i) posttraumatic stress and (ii) job-related emotional exhaustion. The relationship between reporting and outcome variables will be stronger (i.e., reporting will be more effective) when severity is higher.
>
> *Hypothesis 3c:* CSH severity will moderate the relationship between internal coping and (i) posttraumatic stress and (ii) job-related emotional exhaustion. The relationship between internal coping and outcome variables will be weaker (i.e., internal coping will be less effective) when severity is higher.

Likewise, severe harassment may exceed targets' ability to cope with harassment on their own. Support from others becomes increasingly important as severity increases.

> *Hypothesis 3d:* CSH severity will moderate the relationship between social coping and (i) posttraumatic stress and (ii) job-related emotional exhaustion. The relationship between social coping and outcome variables will be stronger (i.e., social coping will be more effective) when severity is higher.

Comparable to external coping strategies, retaliation is a way to assert one's self and to restore justice in the eyes of the sexual harassment target. Retaliation may provide a means to allow the target to take action against the source of their distress (i.e., the harasser). Indeed, it may be more empowering than alternative coping strategies (e.g., reporting, social coping) because it does not necessitate the support of other parties (e.g., a manager or the organization). Retaliation becomes increasingly important as severity increases.

> *Hypothesis 3e:* CSH severity will moderate the relationship between retaliation and (i) posttraumatic stress and (ii) job-related emotional exhaustion. The relationship between retaliation and outcome variables will be stronger (i.e., retaliation will be more effective) when severity is higher.

Client power. Researchers, theorists, and legal experts have characterized sexual harassment as an outgrowth of power. It is viewed as a form of sexual discrimination, which results from both men's economic power over women and gender roles that define men as sexual agents and women as objects (E.E.O.C., 1980; Gutek, 1985). Research finds that men with a propensity to harass are more likely to do so when they are in a position of power (Bargh & Raymond, 1995).

The issue of power is central to customer service work. The dynamic between customers and service workers is asymmetrical such that customers typically possess more power. The notion that "the customer is always right" guides many service organizations through both formal and informal mechanisms (e.g., mission statements, performance feedback, organizational socialization). Displaying positive emotion with customers is frequently a role requirement (Diefendorff, Richard, & Coyle, 2006). Customers possess coercive power (i.e., the ability to withhold a desirable resource, e.g., withdrawing patronage, complaining to a supervisor) and reward power (i.e., the ability to give some kind of benefit or confer valued materials, e.g., tips, commission, positive reviews; French & Raven, 1959). Fine et al. (1999) examined CSH in a sample of salespeople. They found that employee perceptions of customers' reward and coercive power predicted CSH. Power was especially predictive of more severe forms of CSH. Gettman and Gelfand (2007) tested a model of CSH antecedents and outcomes using a sample of 394 women participants. Client power positively predicted CSH.

Power plays a role in how women respond to sexual harassment. Malamut and Offerman (2001) found that individuals were likely to employ avoidance-denial, social coping, and advocacy seeking when power differentials were high; they were likely to use confrontation when power differentials were low. In the case of CSH, high power differentials coincide with customer sovereignty. When the customer is considered king, external types of coping strategies (i.e., avoiding and reporting behavior) are rendered ineffective. For example, CSH may be an implicit job requirement (Morganson, 2008) and refusing to quietly endure CSH may be viewed by organizational members as a refusal or failure to effectively perform one's job.

Hypothesis 4a: Client power will moderate the relationship between avoidance coping and (i) posttraumatic stress and (ii) job-related emotional exhaustion. The relationship between avoidance coping and outcome variables will be weaker (i.e., avoidance coping is less effective) when client power is higher.

Hypothesis 4b: Client power will moderate the relationship between reporting and (i) posttraumatic stress and (ii) job-related emotional exhaustion. The relationship between reporting and outcome variables will be weaker (i.e., reporting is less effective) when client power is higher.

Instead, when customer power is high, social and internal coping strategies (e.g., detaching one's self emotionally) may be more effective.

Hypothesis 4c: Client power will moderate the relationship between internal coping and (i) posttraumatic stress and (ii) job-related emotional exhaustion. The relationship between internal coping and outcome variables will be stronger (i.e., internal coping will be more effective) when client power is higher.

Hypothesis 4d: Client power will moderate the relationship between social coping and (i) posttraumatic stress and (ii) job-related emotional exhaustion. The relationship between social coping and outcome variables will be stronger (i.e., social coping will be more effective) when client power is higher.

When power differentials favor the customer, retaliation may be a relatively advantageous coping strategy. In contrast to external coping strategies, retaliation is a low

profile way of refusing to endure inappropriate sexual behavior. Since retaliation is done privately, the target does not face the potential repercussions of violating the customer-worker status quo. Retaliation is an empowering way to cope with CSH because it involves refusing to endure unwanted sexual treatment without the assistance or approval of other individuals or the larger organization.

> *Hypothesis 4e:* Client power will moderate the relationship between retaliation and (i) posttraumatic stress and (ii) job-related emotional exhaustion. The relationship between retaliation and outcome variables will be stronger (i.e., retaliation will be more effective) when client power is higher.

CHAPTER VII

STUDY 2: METHOD

Power Analysis

Power analysis estimated the sample size needed for Study 2. The power analysis was focused on detecting a significant change in R-squared with one test predictor and a power level of 80%. Based upon analyses using data from another project, the interaction effect was expected to be small to medium. Thus, the power analysis was based on an average of a standard small and medium effect (.085) using Cohen's effect size standards (Cohen, 1988). Based upon the results of the power analyses, a minimum of 95 participants who report CSH coping were required to test the hypothesized relationships.

Participants and Procedure

Study 2 consisted of two surveys hosted through Inquisite. Each survey took approximately 25 minutes to complete. The first survey included measures of predictors and moderators (i.e., coping, CSH severity, and client power). The second survey followed two weeks later and included measures of outcomes (i.e., posttraumatic stress and job-related emotional exhaustion). As in Study 1, the term "sexual harassment" was not used in recruiting so as to reduce response bias.

As in Study 1, women customer service workers were recruited to participate in this study. They were recruited via two human subjects recruiting pools. First, as in Study 1, Sona was used. Participants from Sona were awarded 1 credit in exchange for successfully completing both surveys. As in Study 1, only participants who indicated in a pre-screening survey that they were employed and were over the age of 18 had access to participate. In

addition, the survey was advertised for customer service workers only. Second, Study Response, a social science research resource that retains a pool of participants and connects researchers with willing participants, was used. Study Response has collected data for over 600 studies, some of which have appeared in peer-reviewed journals including *Academy of Management Journal, Journal of Personality Assessment, Leader and Organization Development Journal* (Stanton & Weiss, 2005). Participants from Study Response were first screened to identify a sample of customer service women who reported experiencing at least one sexually harassing behavior. Participants were entered into a raffle to win a gift card for participating in the screening survey. Those that met the criteria of the study were invited to take both surveys. They were awarded a $25 gift card to Amazon.com for participating. Reminders were sent to participants who did not complete the survey within the first several days to ensure that all participants took each survey within a week of receiving notice. This study was awarded exempt status through the College of Sciences (#010-011-019).

A total of 167 participants who responded to the survey were women reporting at least one sexually harassing behavior. Of these, 78 were recruited from Sona and 89 from StudyResponse. Participants worked an average of 32.0 hours per week (SD = 11.4). They worked in their job for 4.3 (SD = 5.6) years and in their career for 7.0 (SD = 8.6) years. Participants were required to work with customers to be included in the study. They reported working with customers between "most of the time" and "all of the time." All participants reported working with customers at least "some of the time." On average, they interfaced with customers face-to-face (69% of the time), over the phone (21% of the time), and electronically (e.g., by email or messaging; 10% of the time). A variety of

jobs were represented in the sample including: administrative assistant, bartender, care provider, advisor, cashier, manager, consultant, customer service clerk, dental assistant, library assistant, nurse, and sales representative.

Participants were an average of 30.7 years old (SD = 10.7). Most were Caucasian (80.2%) or African American (13.8%). Relationship status was split between single participants (56.3%) and participants who were married or living with a partner (43.7%). A majority of participants had completed some college (43.1%); many held an Associate's (14.4%) or a Bachelor's degree (19.8%). Many participants intended to ultimately complete their Bachelor's (30.5%) or Master's (29.9%) degree. Individual annual income was widely distributed, but the majority (58.8%) earned under $30,000. Frequencies of participant responses on nominal demographic variables are presented in Table 8.

Table 8
Frequency Table of Demographics

	Study Response		Sona	
Variable	*n*	%	*n*	%
Educational Background				
High school diploma	9	10.1	3	3.8
Some college	22	24.7	50	64.1
Associate's degree	5	5.6	19	24.4
Bachelor's degree	27	30.3	6	7.7
Some graduate school	6	6.8	0	0.0
Master's degree	16	18.0	0	0.0
PhD, PsyD, or MD	4	4.5	0	0.0
Final Education Intended				
High school diploma	8	9.0	0	0.0
Some college	16	18.0	1	1.3
Associate's degree	7	7.8	0	0.0
Bachelor's degree	25	28.1	26	33.3
Some graduate school	7	7.9	2	2.6
Master's degree	21	23.6	29	37.2
PhD, PsyD, or MD	4	4.5	20	25.6
Some post-doctoral training	1	1.1	0	0.0

Table 8 (Continued)
Frequency Table of Demographics

Variable	Study Response		Sona	
	n	%	*n*	%
Individual Annual Income				
Less than $5,000	21	26.9	1	1.1
$5,000 to $9,999	26	33.3	1	1.1
$10,000 to $14,999	8	10.2	5	5.6
$15,000 to $19,999	4	5.1	5	5.6
$20,000 to $24,999	6	7.7	3	3.3
$25,000 to $29,999	8	10.3	10	11.2
$30,000 to $39,999	2	2.6	12	13.5
$40,000 to $49,999	1	1.3	7	7.9
$50,000 to $59,999	1	1.3	7	7.9
$60,000 to $69,999	1	1.3	5	5.6
$70,000 to $79,999	0	0.0	6	6.7
$80,000 to $89,999	0	0.0	8	9.0
$90,000 to $99,999	0	0.0	2	2.2
$100,000 or more	0	0.0	17	19.1
Race*				
Caucasian	53	67.9	81	91.0
African American	18	23.1	5	5.6
Asian	4	5.1	2	2.2
Hispanic	6	7.7	3	3.4
Other	2	2.6	0	0.0
Relationship Status				
Single	67	85.9	27	30.3
Married or living with partner	11	14.1	62	69.7

Note. $N = 167$ (Study Response $n = 89$; Sona $n = 78$).
* Participants checked all races that applied. Some participants indicated multiple races.

Measures

Coping with CSH. The measure created in Study 1 was cross-validated and used to measure coping with CSH. Results of the cross-validation are presented in the Results section.

CSH severity. CSH severity was measured using the SEQ-C (Gettman & Gelfand, 2007), a version of the Sexual Experiences Questionnaire (SEQ; Fitzgerald, Gelfand, et al., 1995) which has been adapted for use in a client context. Higher scores indicate

greater severity of sexual harassment experiences. The SEQ has been used to assess severity in past research (Cortina & Wasti, 2005; Malamut & Offermann, 2001; Munson, Miner, & Hulin, 2001).

The SEQ is a self-reported experiential behavioral frequency index. Items represent four factors: unwanted sexual attention, sexist hostility, sexual hostility and sexual coercion. The SEQ derives its content validity from an early qualitative study of a national sample of college students (Till, 1980). More recently, Gettman and Gelfand (2007) found the SEQ to be content valid for CSH. Confirmatory factor analysis yielded a good fit for the 4-factor structure (Gettman & Gelfand, 2007). Participants respond using a 5-point scale ranging from 1 *(never)* to 5 *(most of the time)*. In previous research the alpha reliability for this measure has been .92 and .93 (Gettman & Gelfand, 2007; Morganson, 2008). The alpha in this study was .94. Items are listed in Appendix A. As in previous research (Magley, Hulin, et al., 1999; Munson et al., 2001), the word "sexual harassment" did not appear until the end of the measure to minimize potential bias due to priming and self-labeling. An item, "Have you been sexually harassed?" is included to measure labeling. For the last question, participants were asked if they responded "never" to all of the sexual harassment items. A negative response to this question linked them to the coping questions. Items are listed in Appendix C.

Client power. Client power (Appendix D) was measured using an adapted version of Swan's (1997) six-item measure of perpetrator power. The items are preceded by the stem "The customer who bothered me could affect my …" Example items include "evaluations" and "ability to work." Response options for the original measure include 1 *(yes)*, 2 *(don't know)*, and 3 *(no)*. Four additional items were added including "…tips and

commission" and "my relationship with my boss." The adapted measure was piloted in the data collection in Study 1 and all ten items loaded cleanly on a single factor. Reliability coefficients for Swan's measure have ranged from .82 to .86 in past research (Cortina, Fitzgerald, & Drasgow, 2002; Swan, 1997). In the present study, the alpha was .94. A 5-point scale was used in order to avoid range restriction. The response options ranged from 1 *(strongly disagree)* to 5 *(strongly agree).*

Posttraumatic stress. Posttraumatic stress (Appendix E) was measured using the Post Traumatic Stress Disorder (PTSD) Checklist for Civilians (Weathers, Litz, Herman, Huska, & Keane, 1993). The measure comprised of 17 items regarding re-experiencing traumatic events, avoidance symptoms, and hyperarousal. Items were rated on a 5-point scale ranging from 1 *(not at all)* to 5 *(extremely).* In previous research the alpha reliability for the measure was .95 (Gettman & Gelfand, 2007). In the present study, alpha was .97.

Job-related emotional exhaustion. Job-related emotional exhaustion was measured using a facet of the Maslach Burnout Inventory (Maslach & Jackson, 1981). This measure is widely used and has demonstrated strong psychometric characteristics (e.g., Langballe, Falkum, Innstrand, & Aasland, 2006; Maslach & Jackson, 1981). Maslach and Jackson (1981) reported an internal consistency of .84 for job-related emotional exhaustion. They also found evidence of convergent and discriminant validity. In this study, the alpha was .92. This measure is copyrighted. The response scale ranges from 0 *(never)* to 6 *(every day).*

Control variables. Organizational climate for sexual harassment is defined as "the degree to which an organization (or its relevant proximal component) is perceived as insensitive to or intolerant of sexual harassment" (Hulin, Fitzgerald, & Drasgow, 1996, p.

129). Climate for sexual harassment reflects the degree to which sexually harassing behaviors such as reporting incidents are rewarded, punished, or ignored (Malamut & Offermann, 2001). In organizations that are intolerant of sexual harassment, targets are apt to feel that they can tell the harasser to stop or report the behavior without risk (Schneider et al., 1997). Climate can act as a facilitator, inhibitor, or a trigger for sexually harassing behaviors (Hulin et al., 1996). It discourages direct coping strategies (e.g., reporting) and is likely to vary across occupations and organizations. Thus, perceptions of organizational climate for CSH was evaluated as a control variable. It has been included as a control variable in previous sexual harassment coping research (Wasti & Cortina, 2002).

Perceptions of organizational climate for sexual harassment was measured using Gallus's (2010) adaptation of Williams, Fitzgerald, and Drasgow's (1999) measure of organizational sexual harassment implementation practices. Williams et al.'s original measure yielded a coefficient alpha of .74 (Williams et al., 1999). Gallus (2010) reported an alpha of .93. In this study, the alpha was .93. An example item is "My organization investigates harassment complaints no matter who does the harassing." Responses range from 0 *(completely false)* to 5 *(completely true).* Items are presented in Appendix F.

CHAPTER VIII

STUDY 2: RESULTS

Data Screening and Descriptive Statistics

Data were screened for univariate outliers and missing data. No more than three cases were missing data on each variable of interest (less than 2% of the data). Missing data appeared to be sporadic. Mean substitution was used for missing data, as is appropriate when less than 5% of data is missing (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Box plots were used to detect univariate outliers. Only demographic variables contained outliers: job tenure contained four and career tenure contained three. Outliers were windsorized. Means, standard deviations, alphas, and the number of items for each measure are reported in Table 9.

Table 9
Means, Standard Deviations, and Alpha Reliabilities

	M	SD	Alpha
1. Climate	3.59	0.97	.93
2. Social Coping	2.72	1.11	.89
3. Retaliation	1.93	0.92	.87
4. Internal Coping	2.88	1.04	.71
5. Avoidance Coping	3.24	1.04	.85
6. Reporting	2.32	1.15	.84
7. Severity	1.98	0.72	.94
8. Power	2.53	1.05	.94
9. Posttraumatic Stress	1.70	0.85	.97
10. Emotional Exhaustion	3.81	1.57	.92

$N = 167$

Cross-Validation

A confirmatory factor analysis was performed using EQS 6.1 to cross-validate the factor structure from Study 1. Several statistics were used to assess model fit including the chi-square (χ^2) statistic, the comparative fit index (CFI), standardized root mean

square residual (SRMR), and the root-mean-square error of approximation (RMSEA). Lower chi-square statistics indicate better fit and should be non-significant. However, the chi-square statistic is sensitive to multivariate non-normality and correlations between factors such that multivariate non-normality and larger correlations inflate the chi-square value (Kline, 2005). Generally, CFI is considered to indicate good fit when it exceeds .90 (Hu & Bentler, 1999). SRMR reflects the size of the covariance residuals of the model. SRMR values below .10 are generally considered favorable (Kline, 2005). RMSEA is based on a non-centrality parameter. RMSEA values below .05 indicate good fit, values below .10 indicate fair fit, and values above .10 indicate poor fit (Browne & Cudeck, 1989). For all CFA models reported below, one item on each factor was fixed to 1 and factors were allowed to correlate.

All items retained from Study 1 were entered into a CFA and were allowed to correlate. The model yielded inadequate fit, χ^2 (242) = 533.48, $p < .001$, CFI = .86, SRMR = .09, RMSEA = .09. The normalized Mardia's Coefficient was 18.0, indicating multivariate non-normality. Item-level statistics indicated that an internal coping item, "Assumed the customer meant well," was contributing to misfit. This item had a low factor contribution (R^2 = .27), shared residual variance with other items, and the Lagrange Multiplier test for adding parameters suggested that the item should cross-load with retaliation and reporting factors. The item was subsequently dropped.

Fit improved after dropping the internal coping item. Fit was nearly adequate, χ^2 (220) = 440.09, $p < .001$, CFI = .89, SRMR = .08, RMSEA = .08. A retaliation item, "'Acted dumb' to avoid helping the customer," was dropped due to a low factor contribution (R^2 = .26) and shared residual variance with other items in the model.

The resulting model yielded fair to good fit, χ^2 (199) = 394.0, $p < .001$, CFI = .90, SRMR = .07, RMSEA = .08. The chi-square statistic was significant. However, this is likely due to non-normality (normalized Mardias coefficient = 16.7) and high factor correlations (See Table 10 for factor correlations). Robust statistics were also considered: Mean and Variance adjusted $\chi^2(37) = 57.6$, $p < .05$, CFI = .94, RMSEA = .06 (A robust SRMR statistic is not available). In contrast to statistics based on standard maximum likelihood, robust statistics are more resilient to departures from assumptions including the presence of outliers and non-normality (Browne, 1982). Robust statistics reflect a good fitting model.

Table 10
Factor Correlations Based on CFA

	1	2	3	4	5
1. Social					
2. Retaliation	.53***				
3. Internal	.50***	.35***			
4. Avoidance	.52***	.23**	.48***		
5. Reporting	.59***	.67***	.30***	.27***	

** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

Table 11
Factor Loadings and R^2 Values for Each Item Based on CFA

	1	2	3	4	5	R^2
Social						
Talked about it with someone I trusted.	.85					.72
Talked with friends for understanding and support.	.83					.69
Discussed my frustrations with friends or family.	.79					.62
Asked a friend for advice.	.78					.61
Tried to get advice from someone about what to do.	.75					.57
Vented to my coworkers.	.65					.42
Retaliation						
Made the customer wait (e.g., placing them on hold for a long period of time).		.82				.66
Told the customer that I handled something that I did not handle.		.82				.66
Refused to assist the customer (e.g., hanging up on them).		.77				.60
Pretended to be helpful in an obnoxious way.		.76				.58

Table 11 (Continued)
Factor Loadings and R^2 Values for Each Item Based on CFA

	1	2	3	4	5	R^2
Treated the customer just as he/she had mistreated me.		.70				.49
Acted sarcastically toward the customer.		.51				.26
Internal						
Tried not to make the customer(s) angry.			.79			.62
Tried not to hurt the customer(s) feelings.			.68			.47
Just put up with it.			.55			.30
Avoidance						
Tried to avoid being alone with the customer(s).				.88		.77
Tried to stay away from the customer(s).				.79		.63
Stayed out of the customer(s) way as much as possible.				.79		.62
Made excuses so the customer(s) would leave me alone.				.58		.34
Reporting						
Reported him/her/them.					.91	.83
Made a formal complaint.					.81	.65
Talked with a manager.					.70	.49

Model modification is a controversial topic because it involves an exploratory rather than an exclusively confirmatory approach (Kline, 2005; MacCallum, Roznowski, & Necowitz, 1992). Unfortunately,

> "initially specified measurement models almost invariably fail to provide acceptable fit, the necessary respecification and reestimation using the same data mean that the analysis is not exclusively confirmatory. After acceptable fit has been achieved with a series of respecifications, the next step in progression would be to cross validate the final model on another sample drawn from the population to which the results are to be generalized." (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988, p. 412).

To ensure the exact model fit the data across two samples, the measurement model in Table 11 was tested on the data from Study 1 using confirmatory factor analysis. The model was found to fit the data: χ^2 (199) = 456.07, $p < .001$, CFI = .90, SRMR = .07, RMSEA = .08.

Bivariate Relationships

Bivariate correlations are reported in Table 12. Contrary to expectations, coping strategies were not all significantly related to outcome variables. Avoidance coping was not significantly related to posttraumatic stress, $r(165) = .14$, *n.s.* Likewise, social coping ($r(165) = .12$, *n.s.*), retaliation ($r(165) = .07$, *n.s.*), and reporting ($r(165) = .07$, *n.s.*), did not significantly predict job-related emotional exhaustion. This may have been a function of inadequate power; with a sample size of 167, only relationships greater than .14 were detectable. When coping did predict outcome variables, the relationship was unexpectedly positive. Social coping ($r(165) = .39, p < .001$), retaliation ($r(165) = .58, p < .001$), internal coping ($r(165) = .27, p < .001$), and reporting ($r(165) = .42, p < .001$) positively predicted posttraumatic stress. Internal ($r(165) = .20, p < .01$) and avoidance coping ($r(165) = .26, p < .001$), positively predicted job-related emotional exhaustion. As expected, both severity ($r(165) = .53, p < .001$) and power ($r(165) = .60, p < .001$) were positively related to posttraumatic stress. However, severity ($r(165) = .08$, *n.s.*) and power ($r(165) = .07$, *n.s.*) were not significantly related to emotional exhaustion.

Table 12

Intercorrelations among Variables

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19
1. Recruitment Source																			
2. Age	**.71**																		
3. Education	**.44**	**.27**																	
4. Intended Education	**-.43**	**-.43**	**.38**																
5. Income	**.70**	**.48**	**.73**	-.03															
6. Race	**.29**	**.21**	**.18**	-.08	**.23**														
7. Relationship Status	**.56**	**.47**	**.39**	**-.21**	**.64**	**.20**													
8. Hours per week	**.73**	**.58**	**.44**	**-.32**	**.72**	.20	**.56**												
9. Job Tenure	**.42**	**.40**	**.37**	-.06	**.43**	.13	**.33**	**.40**											
10. Career Tenure	**.55**	**.69**	**.20**	**-.35**	**.37**	**.18**	**.30**	**.47**	**.49**										
11. Climate	**-.19**	**.17**	.12	**.26**	-.01	.02	.04	-.08	.00	-.09									
12. Social Coping	.12	-.01	.09	-.02	.12	.10	.11	.07	.09	-.07	-.13								
13. Retaliation	.10	-.10	**.21**	.14	**.21**	-.01	**.16**	.10	.10	-.12	.07	**.47**							
14. Internal Coping	-.15	**-.24**	-.04	.13	-.07	-.06	-.09	**-.18**	-.01	**-.19**	-.03	**.43**	**.32**						
15. Avoidance Coping	**-.16**	**-.24**	**-.21**	.06	**-.26**	-.01	**-.16**	**-.22**	-.03	**-.19**	-.19	**.40**	**.21**	**.46**					
16. Reporting	.05	.01	.14	.08	**.19**	.03	.13	**.16**	.11	-.07	.04	**.53**	**.55**	**.24**	**.17**				
17. Severity	.05	-.04	.11	.02	**.16**	.01	**.17**	.06	.06	-.11	**-.28**	**.40**	**.47**	**.31**	**.34**	**.31**			
18. Power	**.17**	.07	**.18**	.08	**.22**	.07	**.18**	.07	.11	-.07	-.04	**.32**	**.36**	**.22**	.12	**.28**	**.34**		
19. Posttraumatic Stress	**.29**	10	**.30**	.00	**.34**	.08	**.28**	**.25**	**.21**	-.03	-.02	**.39**	**.58**	**.27**	.14	**.42**	**.53**	**.60**	
20. Emotional Exhaustion	.03	-.04	-.13	-.10	-.06	-.09	-.06	.11	-.02	-.06	**-.24**	.12	.07	**.20**	**.26**	.07	.08	.07	**.16**

Note. N = 167. Values between .16 and .19 are significant at $p < .05$; between .20 and .25 are significant at $p < .01$; above .26 are significant at $p < .001$. All values with p-values below .05 are bolded. Recruiting source is coded 0 = Study Response, 1 = Sona. Relationship status is coded 0 = single, 1 = married or living with partner. Race is coded 0 = minority, 1 = Caucasian.

Test of Hypotheses

Data were screened for multivariate outliers by calculating Mahalanobis distance for each regression equation. There were four multivariate outliers on each regression equation. The four multivariate outlying cases were the same for the two regression equations where CSH was a factor. Likewise, the four multivariate outlying cases were the same for the two regression equations where power was a factor. No problematic cases were identified by screening multivariate outliers. Thus, multivariate outliers were only removed in the analyses for which the scores were extreme; they were not permanently deleted from the dataset.

Following Baron and Kenny's (1986) procedure for analyzing moderation using regression, hierarchical multiple regression equations were used to test Hypotheses 3 and 4. Control variables were entered in step 1, main effects in step 2, and interaction terms in step 3. To prevent multicollinearity, main effects were mean centered prior to creating interaction terms (Aiken, West, & Reno, 1991). Dummy coded variables were created for recruiting source (Study Response vs. Sona), relationship status (single vs. married or living with partner), and race (racial minority vs. Caucasian). Demographic variables that were significantly related to the dependent variable were included as control variables (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). One exception was education, which (a) was on an interval scale and therefore was inappropriate for regression in its raw form and (b) was redundant of other control variables in the model (e.g., it correlated highly with income and recruitment source). As mentioned in the Method section, perceptions of organizational climate for sexual harassment was also included as a control variable when it was significantly related to the dependent variable. Significant interaction terms in step

3 were sought as support of hypotheses. Tables 13, 14, 15, and 16 display the unstandardized coefficients (B), standardized error of the unstandardized coefficients (SE B), standardized coefficients (β), semi-partial correlations (sr_i^2), R-squared values and change in R-squared for each step in the regression analysis.

Interaction of severity and coping in the prediction of posttraumatic stress. Hypotheses $3a_i$ to $3e_i$ predicted that severity moderates the relationship between coping and posttraumatic stress. A summary of the regression results is presented in Table 13. Control variables (i.e., recruitment source, income, marital status, and job tenure) were entered in the first step of the regression equation; the R was significantly different from zero, $F(5,157) = 3.25$, $p <.001$, $R^2 = .14$. Main effects were entered in the second step. The R was significantly different from zero, $F(11,151) = 14.18$, $p <.001$, $R^2 = .51$. Severity positively predicted posttraumatic stress ($\beta = .30$, $p < .001$). Likewise, retaliation positively predicted posttraumatic stress ($\beta = .31$, $p < .001$). Interaction terms were entered in the third step and the R was significantly different from zero, $F(16,146) = 10.73$, $p <.001$, $R^2 = .14$. Contrary to hypotheses, severity did not interact with avoidance ($\beta = .00$, *n.s.*), reporting ($\beta = .17$, *n.s.*), internal ($\beta = -.11$, *n.s.*), social ($\beta = -.17$, *n.s.*), or retaliation ($\beta = .09$, *n.s.*) coping strategies.

Table 13

Predicting Posttraumatic Stress: Hypotheses $3a_i$ to $3e_i$

Variable	B	SE B	B	sr_i^2	R^2	ΔR^2
Step 1					.14***	
Recruitment Source	.18	.21	.11	.00		
Income	.05	.03	.24	.02		
Martial Status	.18	.17	.11	.01		
Hours	.00	.01	-.01	.00		
Job Tenure	-.01	.02	-.03	.00		
Step 2					.51***	.37***
Severity	.38	.09	.30***	.05		
Avoidance	-.03	.06	-.04	.00		
Reporting	.08	.06	.10	.01		
Internal	.04	.06	.04	.00		
Social	.03	.06	.04	.00		
Retaliation	.31	.07	.34***	.06		
Step 3					.54***	.03
Avoidance X Severity	-.01	.11	.00	.00		
Reporting X Severity	.17	.10	.17	.01		
Internal X Severity	-.13	.11	-.11	.00		
Social X Severity	-.20	.13	-.17	.01		
Retaliation X Severity	.10	.12	.09	.00		

Note. Recruiting source is coded 0 = Study Response, 1 = Sona. Relationship status is coded 0 = single, 1 = married or living with partner.
***$p < .001$.

Interaction of severity and coping in the prediction of emotional exhaustion. Hypotheses $3a_{II}$ to $3e_{II}$ predicted that severity moderates the relationship between coping and job-related emotional exhaustion. A summary of the regression results is presented in Table 14. Climate was entered as a control variable in Step 1; the R was significantly different from zero, $F(1,161) = 33.90$, $p < .001$, $R^2 = .09$. Perceptions of organizational climate for sexual harassment negatively predicted job-related emotional exhaustion ($\beta = -.29$, $p < .001$). In step 2, main effects were entered. The R was significantly different from zero, $F(7,155) = .16$, $p < .001$, $R^2 = .16$. Avoidance coping positively predicted job-related emotional exhaustion ($\beta = .23$, $p < .01$). Interaction terms were entered in the third step to test hypotheses. The R was significantly different from zero, $F(12,150) = 2.98$, $p < .01$, $R^2 = .19$. Contrary to hypotheses, severity did not interact with avoidance ($\beta = .28$, *n.s.*), reporting ($\beta = .10$, *n.s.*), internal ($\beta = .11$, *n.s.*), social ($\beta = .00$, *n.s.*), or retaliation ($\beta = -.34$, *n.s.*) coping strategies.

Interaction of power and coping in the prediction of posttraumatic stress. Hypotheses $4a_I$ to $4e_I$ predicted that power moderates the relationship between coping and posttraumatic stress. Regression results are presented in Table 15. Control variables (i.e., recruitment source, income, marital status, and job tenure) were entered in the first step of the regression equation; the R was significantly different from zero, $F(5,157) = 4.61$, $p < .001$, $R^2 = .13$. Main effects (i.e., severity, avoidance, reporting, internal, social, and retaliation) were entered in the second step; the R was significantly different from zero, $F(11,151) = 17.83$, $p < .001$, $R^2 = .57$. Client power was positively related to posttraumatic stress ($\beta = .39$, $p < .001$). Retaliation positively predicted posttraumatic stress ($\beta = .37$, $p < .001$). Interaction terms were entered in the third step. The R was

Table 14

Predicting Emotional Exhaustion: Hypotheses 3a$_{ii}$ to3e$_{ii}$

Variable	B	SE B	B	sr_i^2	R^2	ΔR^2
Step 1					.09***	
Climate	-.48	.12	-.29***	.09		
Step 2					.16***	.08*
Severity	.05	.22	.02	.00		
Avoidance	.34	.13	.23**	.04		
Reporting	.09	.14	.07	.00		
Internal	.16	.14	.10	.01		
Social	-.11	.15	-.08	.00		
Retaliation	-.03	.18	-.02	.00		
Step 3					.19**	.03
Avoidance X Severity	.23	.25	.09	.00		
Reporting X Severity	.27	.23	.14	.01		
Internal X Severity	.22	.26	.11	.00		
Social X Severity	.01	.30	.00	.00		
Retaliation X Severity	-.35	.28	-.17	.01		

*$p < .05$, **$p < .01$, ***$p < .001$.

significantly different from zero, $F(16,146) = 15.41$, $p < .001$, $R^2 = .63$. Hypothesis $3a_i$ was not supported; avoidance coping and power did not interact to predict posttraumatic stress ($\beta = .04$, *n.s.*). Likewise, reporting and power did not interact as predicted by Hypothesis $3b_i$ ($\beta = .01$, *n.s.*). With regard to Hypothesis $3c_i$, internal coping and power interacted to predict posttraumatic stress ($\beta = -.16$, $p < .05$), but the effect was not considered significant when using a Bonferroni correction. As predicted by Hypothesis $3d_i$, social coping and power interacted to predict posttraumatic stress ($\beta = -.16$, $p < .05$). However, the nature of the interaction differed from expectations. Although it was predicted that the relationship between social coping and posttraumatic stress became stronger as power increased, the Figure 3 shows that when power is low, the relationship between social coping and posttraumatic stress is negative; when power is high, the relationship is positive. Contrary to Hypothesis $3e_i$, retaliation and power did not interact to predict posttraumatic stress ($\beta = .04$, *n.s.*).

Table 15

Predicting Posttraumatic Stress: Hypotheses $4a_i$ to $4e_i$

Variable	B	SE B	B	sr_i^2	R^2	ΔR^2
Step 1					.13**	
Recruitment Source	.04	.21	.02	.00		
Income	.05	.03	.23	.02		
Martial Status	.19	.17	.11	.01		
Hours	.00	.02	.02	.00		
Job Tenure	.00	.02	.02	.00		
Step 2					.57***	.44***
Power	.32	.05	.39***	.16		
Avoidance	.00	.05	.00	.00		
Reporting	.05	.06	.07	.00		
Internal	.07	.05	.09	.00		
Social	-.02	.06	-.03	.00		
Retaliation	.34	.07	.37***	.08		
Step 3					.63***	.06***
Avoidance X Power	.03	.06	.04	.00		
Reporting X Power	.01	.06	.01	.00		
Internal X Power	-.13	.06	-.16*	.02		
Social X Power	.20	.06	.27**	.03		
Retaliation X Power	.03	.07	.04	.00		

Note. Recruiting source is coded 0 = Study Response, 1 = Sona. Relationship status is coded 0 = single, 1 = married or living with partner.
*$p < .05$, **$p < .01$, ***$p < .001$.

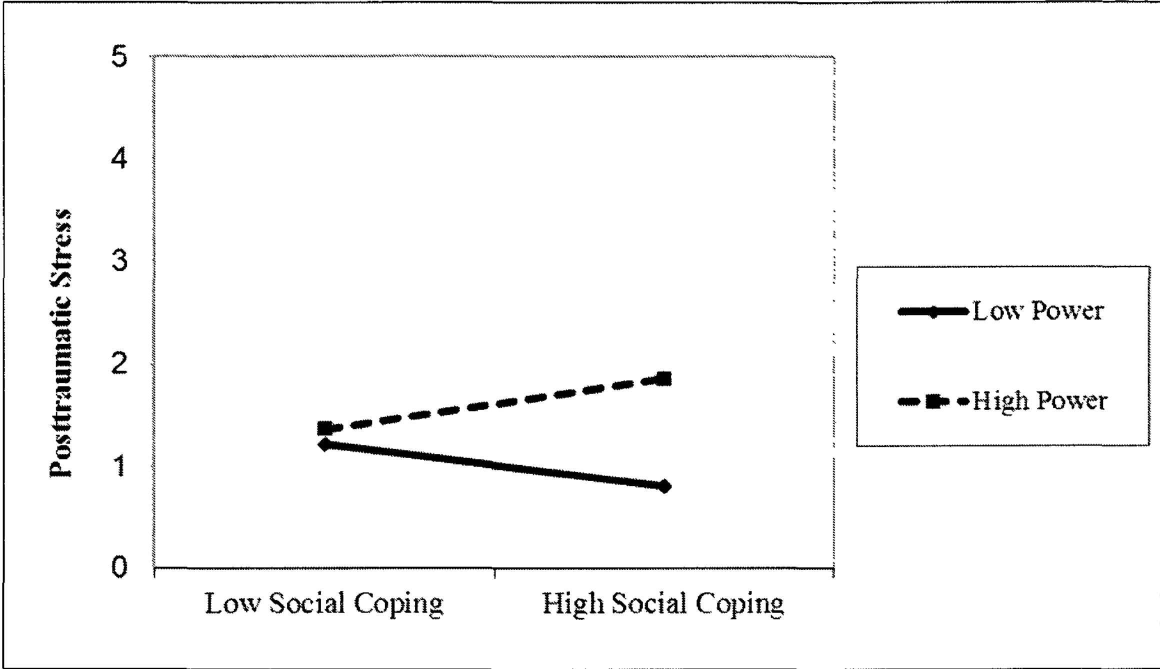

Figure 3. Social coping and power in the prediction of posttraumatic stress.

Interaction of power and coping in the prediction of emotional exhaustion. Hypotheses $4a_{ii}$ to $4e_{ii}$ predicted that power moderates the relationship between coping and job-related emotional exhaustion. A summary of the regression results is presented in Table 16. Climate was entered as a control variable in the first step of the regression equation; the R was significantly different from zero, $F(1,161) = 11.15$, $p <.01$, $R^2 = .07$. Climate significantly negatively predicted job-related burnout ($\beta = -.25$, $p < .01$); lower organizational tolerance for sexual harassment was associated with higher job-related burnout. Main effects were entered in the second step; the R was significantly different from zero, $F(7,155) = 3.32$, $p <.01$, $R^2 = .13$. Interaction terms were entered in the third step. The R was significantly different from zero, $F(12,150) = 2.42$, $p < .01$, $R^2 = .40$. Contrary to hypotheses, power did not interact with avoidance ($\beta = .13$, *n.s.*), reporting ($\beta = .22$, *n.s.*), internal ($\beta = -.17$, *n.s.*), social ($\beta = -.03$, *n.s.*), or retaliation ($\beta = -.12$, *n.s.*) coping strategies.

Table 16

Predicting Emotional Exhaustion: Hypotheses 4a$_{ii}$ to4e$_{ii}$

Variable	B	SE B	Β	sr_i^2	R^2	ΔR^2
Step 1					.07**	
Climate	-.41	.12	-.25***	.06		
Step 2					.13**	.07
Power	.01	.13	.00	.00		
Avoidance	.31	.14	.21*	.03		
Reporting	.16	.14	.12	.01		
Internal	.15	.14	.10	.01		
Social	-.18	.15	-.13	.01		
Retaliation	.02	.17	-.01	.00		
Step 3					.16**	.03
Avoidance X Power	.18	.15	.13	.01		
Reporting X Power	.27	.17	.22	.01		
Internal X Power	-.26	.15	-.17	.01		
Social X Power	-.04	.17	-.03	.00		
Retaliation X Power	-.18	.18	-.12	.00		

**$p < .01$, ***$p < .001$.

CHAPTER IX

STUDY 2: DISCUSSION

Evaluating the Contextual Model

Study 2 sought to advance CSH research by moving beyond describing its negative impact and beginning to identify ways to buffer its impact. Two outcomes, which are central to women's psychological well-being, posttraumatic stress and job-related emotional exhaustion, were considered. CSH severity and power were evaluated as contextual factors that influence the impact of coping. Hypotheses were largely unsupported; for the most part, coping strategies did not interact with CSH severity and client power to predict posttraumatic stress and emotional exhaustion.

Bivariate relationships and main effects were not as expected and may help explain why hypotheses were not supported. Contrary to previous research (Morganson, Lauzun, et al., 2010), CSH severity was unrelated to emotional exhaustion. Furthermore, coping strategies were not all significantly related to outcome variables. To some extent, lack of significant findings may have been sample specific. Perhaps more significant results would be identified in a sample of full-time, more tenured workers. The nature of the relationships between coping and outcome variables that were significant were positive. Mediated relationships may exist. For example, in addition to severity acting as a mediator as anticipated in this dissertation, coping may mediate the relationship between severity and posttraumatic stress. Additional research is needed to test a mediated-moderated model of CSH coping.

Although interaction terms were generally non-significant, increases in incremental validity were detected. This may indicate an increase in predictive power at the intercept or it may indicate that the analysis was underpowered. Although an a priori power analysis was performed, it was based upon a small to medium effect. Given the lack of prior research on CSH and coping, it was difficult to pinpoint an expected effect size. If the interaction of coping and CSH is small (as a post hoc results indicate), the present study was underpowered and would not have been able to detect such an effect.

The lack of significant findings may reflect the complexity of coping. As stated by Folkman and Moskowitz (2004), "Coping is not a stand-alone phenomenon. It is embedded in a complex, dynamic stress process that involves the person, the environment, and the relationship between them" (p. 748). More sophisticated research designs and larger, more complex models of coping are needed to adequately assess CSH coping. Perhaps the effects of coping would be larger and more significant if a different methodology was used.

The methodology employed in this study provided a "snapshot" of CSH coping. An additional complexity, which was not captured in this research design, is that persons and situations interact *over time.* For example, a waitress who works in a context where the customer is powerful may respond to CSH by engaging in retaliation (e.g., spitting in food or holding up the customer's order). While retaliation may provide immediate gratification and benefit psychological well-being in the short-term, the long-term effects on the waitress's well-being may be negative. For example, the high powered customer may suspect retaliation and withhold a tip or perhaps leave a negative comment card complaining about slow service. In this example, the short-term gain of retaliation would

likely be canceled out by the long-term cost. Unfortunately, the present research design was not able to capture the complexity added by adding time as a factor. Within subjects designs may be advantageous when assessing how coping impacts emotional well-being because they have more statistical power and involve repeating measurement over time (Lazarus, 2000). In order to capture effects over time and differences in situational factors (i.e., the variability in severity and client power), a mixed research design is in order.

A related limitation of the method used in the present study that likely contributed to the lack of significant findings was the sole use of an inventory approach to measuring coping. Certainly, the inventory method of coping has its strengths: it provides a means by which to capture complex, multi-dimensional coping behaviors while permitting self-reporting (Folkman & Moskowitz, 2004). Unfortunately, however, inventory approaches are subject to recall bias (Coyne & Gottlieb, 1996). As in prior research (e.g., Fitzgerald, Drasgow, et al., 1997; Gettman & Gelfand, 2007; Glomb et al., 1997; Waldo, Berdahl, & Fitzgerald, 1998), respondents in this study reported CSH experienced over the last two years. Thus, the CSH coping they reported happened sometime within a two year timespan. In the time since CSH occurred, participants have likely engaged in a sensemaking process in order to find meaning and form a coherent understanding of their CSH experience (cf. Coyne & Gottlieb, 1996; Weick, 1988). They are apt to have forgotten that they engaged in certain strategies and overestimate the extent the extent to which they engaged in strategies that, in retrospect, seem especially rational. Since retaliation is likely a “knee-jerk” response, it may be especially susceptible to recall bias.

Future research should examine CSH coping in ways that can elicit specific and detailed thoughts and actions.

Although the majority of hypotheses were not supported, social coping and power interacted to predict posttraumatic stress. The nature of the relationship was not as expected. Rather, the relationship between social coping and posttraumatic stress became increasingly negative as power decreased. This unexpected finding, again, may be attributed to the complex and dynamic nature of coping. In reality, individuals engage in more than one type of coping simultaneously and coping strategies may predict one another. When power is low, social coping may yield a positive outcome. When a service worker discusses her CSH experience with her coworkers, her coworkers may provide instrumental social coping by encouraging her to report the behavior and sharing instances when they successfully coped with and overcame CSH via other strategies. When power is low, the repertoire of acceptable and effective coping behaviors is theoretically larger. In contrast, when power is high, social coping may yield fewer instrumental responses. Instead, in high power contexts, social coping may entail commiseration or rumination amongst coworkers who themselves have experienced CSH as an abuse of power and a futile situation. In this latter circumstance, social coping involves reliving the event, leading to additional memory flashbacks and re-experiencing emotions associated with the event (i.e., symptoms of posttraumatic stress) with little or no benefit.

Retaliation and its Nomological Network

Retaliation is a relatively novel construct in the literature. One of the contributions of the present study is to expand the nomological network of retaliation.

Confirming the findings of Study 1, retaliation was positively related to four other types of coping, providing evidence of convergent validity. Additionally, multivariate main effects show that retaliation was a stronger predictor of posttraumatic stress than any of the four other, more established types of coping with CSH (i.e., avoidance, reporting, internal, and social coping). Retaliation was positively linked with posttraumatic stress. Unfortunately, causality cannot be inferred from the present research design. It is possible that retaliation increases posttraumatic stress. Alternatively, a particularly stressful event may require an individual to engage in more coping. Indeed, internal, social, and reporting strategies were all positively related to posttraumatic stress at the bivariate level.

At the bivariate level, retaliation was positively linked with CSH severity. Individuals who were subject to more CSH reported engaging in more retaliation toward the customer. As Andersson and Pearson (1999) discussed in their theoretical article, interpersonal aggression begets more interpersonal aggression. They described how the negative actions of one party lead to negative actions from a second party, resulting in increasingly commonplace and intense counterproductive behaviors – a downward spiral effect. Along the same lines, Folger and Skarlicki (1998) discussed the "popcorn model," suggesting that victimization may lead to perpetration. Injustices can build up to an "interpersonal heat" that explodes into an aggressive outburst.

Retaliation was positively linked to power. When the customer is powerful, individuals are more likely to respond to CSH with retaliation. CSH (and sexual harassment in general) has generally been understood as a function of power (Bargh, Raymond, Pryor, & Strack, 1995; Berdahl, 2007; Gettman & Gelfand, 2007; Gutek,

1985). The nature of the bivariate correlation and the quotation at the introduction of Study 2 illustrate quantitatively and qualitatively that retaliation is a way of dethroning the powerful customer when they are being abusive.

CHAPTER X

GENERAL DISCUSSION

Retaliation

This dissertation provides quantitative support to compliment the qualitative, pilot findings (discussed in Study 1), which suggest that service workers retaliate in response to CSH. Retaliation is a unique coping strategy, not captured in previous accounts of sexual harassment coping. The two studies presented here also provide empirical support for initial qualitative research findings that service workers engage in "gaining revenge" as a way of dealing with customer aggression (Reynolds & Harris, 2006). Findings extend prior research on customer-directed sabotage by exploring retaliation as a response to sexualized forms of aggression.

Another contribution of the present dissertation is to nest retaliation within the theoretical framework of coping. Viewing retaliation as a means of coping with CSH offers a different perspective from previous sexual harassment coping literature; whereas one may tend to think of the target as a victim, considering retaliation as a coping strategy implies that targets are instrumental and engage in actions that are quite contrary to a view of the (helpless) victim. In contrast to reporting, an assertive coping strategy that has been the focus of research on responses to sexual harassment (Bergman et al., 2002; Fitzgerald, Swan, et al., 1995), retaliation is a mechanism through which targets address the source of CSH independently.

A Measure of CSH Coping

Study 1 and Study 2 cross-validated the factor structure of a measure of CSH coping. Confirmatory factor analysis provided support for the five-factor model of CSH coping identified in Study 1. As summarized at the beginning of this dissertation, coping with sexual harassment (and coping more generally) has been conceptualized in numerous different ways. Many conceptualizations have only been partially supported by data (e.g., Knapp et al., 1997 tested by Wasti & Cortina; Fitzgerald, Swan, & Fischer 1995 and Magley, 2002 tested by Magley, 2002) or have gone untested (Gutek & Koss, 1993). The factor structure of sexual harassment coping differs between studies (cf. Magley, 2002; Malamut & Offermann, 2001; Wasti & Cortina, 2002). When coping with sexual harassment has been empirically evaluated, prior published research has used exploratory techniques to evaluate factor structures, finding inconsistent factor structures across samples (e.g., Cortina & Wasti, 2005; Magley, 2002; Wasti & Cortina, 2002). To this author's knowledge, no measure of coping with sexual harassment prior to this one has been cross-validated using confirmatory techniques. Furthermore, none have examined *customer* sexual harassment. Thus, the development of a means by which to operationalize CSH coping empirically is a key contribution of this dissertation.

Future research

Assessing coping is said to be more of an art than a science (Folkman & Moskowitz, 2004). Perhaps a more ideal future study of CSH coping would be to provide individuals who work in jobs where CSH is particularly common with Blackberries equipped with a data collection interface where they could report their daily experiences with CSH and coping. A combination of inventory-style measures and more open,

qualitative questions (e.g., a daily diary study), might be suitable for CSH coping research. The measure created in the present study should be used in a mixed-method, longitudinal research design.

Additional research is needed to identify mechanisms to buffer the impact of CSH. Perhaps one valuable factor to consider in a follow up study is the extent to which CSH is subjectively appraised as threatening. It is possible for sexual harassment to be severe, but not to be perceived as threatening. Lack of significant findings in Study 2 may be partially attributable to variation in subjective appraisal. Subjective appraisal could be explored as a control variable or as an explanatory factor. For example, perhaps there is a three-way interaction between severity, coping, and subjective appraisal.

The present study was conducted using an exclusively female sample. The measure of CSH coping should be tested for measurement invariance to determine if it can also be used to assess how men cope with CSH. Such research is a necessary prerequisite to assessing potential differences in the efficacy of coping strategies between men and women. Research shows that men and women cope in different ways (Morganson, Jones, & Major, 2010; Tamres, Janicki, & Helgeson, 2002); additionally, the efficacy of coping strategies may differ by gender (Abraham, 1996; Morganson, Jones, et al., 2010; Tamres et al., 2002). Additionally, sexual harassment research finds that men experience sexual harassment differently than women (e.g., they are less likely to experience it, report it, and label it as sexual harassment; Bergman et al., 2002; Magley, Hulin, et al., 1999; Riger, 1991). Examining gender differences in coping strategies and the effectiveness of coping strategies is likely a fruitful avenue for future research.

Practical Implications

Prior research has established that CSH is harmful to both the service worker and the employing organization by linking CSH with individual (e.g., posttraumatic stress, health satisfaction, mental health, stress in general) and organizational (e.g., job satisfaction, commitment, turnover intentions, and withdrawal from the client) outcomes (Gettman & Gelfand, 2007; Morganson, 2008; Morganson, Lauzun, et al., 2010; Morganson & Major, 2008). This dissertation extends those findings by identifying retaliation toward the customer as a response to CSH. Similar to Skarlicki et al.'s (2008) findings, the results of this study suggest that customer-directed sabotage behavior can be initiated by unjust treatment from the customer and should not be over attributed to stable employee traits. To the extent that interpersonal aggression has a contagious effect, it is critical for organizations to hold a zero-tolerance policy. Protecting service workers against customer-instigated aggression "stops the buck" before interpersonal aggression spreads. Enabling coping strategies that need not be executed covertly is critical; for example, service organizations should foster climates that enable and encourage reporting. Whistle blowing procedures need to explicitly extend to customer perpetrators and should be taken seriously. Service workers should be empowered to confront CSH in an "above the table" way. For example, organizations can empower employees to "fire" customers for certain behavior (e.g., up to three customers in their career) or request a customer transfer without question. Another option is to track customers (e.g., via membership cards) who engage in sexually harassing behavior and route them to service workers who they are less apt to harass in future encounters. Failing to take action to discourage CSH and thereby allowing customer-directed retaliation to occur opens the

organization up to undesirable consequences including bad publicity, health code violations, and legal liability.

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APPENDIX A

COPING WITH CSH

Construct	Instructions and Items
Coping With CSH	**Think about the kinds of customer harassment described in the last section. <u>Select the one incident that made the greatest impression upon you.</u> Indicate how well the following statements describe <u>how you responded</u> when the incident occurred.** 1. Tried not to make the customer(s) angry (I) 2. Told myself it wasn't important (I) 3. Assumed the customer(s) meant well (I) 4. Made excuses so the customer(s) would leave me alone (I) 5. Tried not to hurt the customer(s) feelings (I) 6. Blamed myself for what happened (I) 7. Just tried to forget about it (I) 8. Tried to stay away from the customer(s) (E) 9. Stayed out of the customer(s) way as much as possible (E) 10. Tried to avoid being alone with the customer(s) (E) 11. Reported him/her/them (E) 12. Talked with a manager (S) 13. Made a formal complaint (E) 14. Filed a grievance (E) 15. Talked about it with someone I trusted (S) 16. Asked a friend for advice (S) 17. Talked with friends for understanding and support (S) 18. Let the customer(s) know I didn't like what was happening (E) 19. Asked the customer(s) to leave me alone (E) 20. Just put up with it (I) 21. Vented to my coworkers. (S) 22. Discussed my frustrations with friends or family. (S) 23. Tried to get advice from someone about what to do. (S) 24. Asked people who have had similar experiences what they did. (S) 25. Tried to grow as a person as a result of the experience. (I) 26. Restrained myself from doing anything too quickly. (I) 27. Held off doing anything about it until the situation permitted. (I)

Note. Responses range from 1 *(not at all descriptive)* to 5 *(extremely descriptive).* Codes indicate initially expected factor: E = external coping, I = internal coping, S = social coping.

APPENDIX B

RETALIATION

Construct	Instructions and Items
Retaliation	28. Intentionally provided the customer(s) with lower quality service 29. Sabotaged the customer's goods or items (e.g., misplacing, mishandling, damaging, or polluting goods or items) 30. Refused to comply with the customer's requests 31. Upcharged, blacklisted, or exploited the customer 32. Acted sarcastically toward the customer 33. Refused to assist the customer (e.g., hanging up on them) 34. Treated the customer just as he/she had mistreated me 35. Purposefully misdirected or misguided a customer 36. Told the customer that I handled something that I did not handle 37. Made the customer wait (e.g., placing them on hold for a long period of time) 38. Purposefully damaged customer goods or merchandise 39. Gave the customer a lower grade product or less of the product (e.g., skimping) 40. "Acted dumb" to avoid helping the customer 41. Pretended to be helpful in an obnoxious way 42. Intentionally charged the customer more than normal the normal price for their goods or services 43. Told a customer you could not help them just because I did not want to help them

Note. Responses range from 1 *(not at all descriptive)* to 5 *(extremely descriptive).*

APPENDIX C

CSH SEVERITY

Construct	Instructions and Items
Customer Sexual Harassment	**In the last 2 years, how often have you been in a situation where a <u>customer or client</u>...** 1. Told offensive sexual stories or jokes? 2. Made unwelcome attempts to draw you into discussion of sexual matters? 3. Treated you differently because of your sex? 4. Made offensive remarks about appearance, body or sexual activities? 5. Made gestures or used body language of a sexual nature that offended you? 6. Displayed, used, or distributed sexist or suggestive materials? 7. Made offensive sexist remarks? 8. Made unwanted attempts to establish a romantic relationship with you despite your efforts to discourage him? 9. Continued to ask you for dates, drinks, dinner, etc., even though you said "No"? 10. Made you feel like you were being bribed with a reward to engage in sexual behavior? 11. Made you feel threatened with some sort of retaliation for not being sexually cooperative? 12. Touched you in a way that made you fell uncomfortable? 13. Made unwanted attempts to stroke, fondle, or kiss you? 14. Treated badly for refusing to have sex? 15. Implied better treatment if you were sexually cooperative? 16. Put you down or was condescending to you because of your sex? 17. Have you been sexually harassed? 18. Did you respond "*never*" to ALL questions above?

Note. Responses range from 1 (*never)* to 5 (*most of the time),* except for questions 17 and 18 which are on a yes/no response scale.

APPENDIX D

CLIENT POWER

Construct	Instructions and Items
Client Power	**Think again about the event that made the greatest impression upon you. Now, please describe how much power the customer had to affect some things about your job.** **The customer who bothered me could affect ...** 1. my evaluations. 2. my pay raises. 3. my chances of moving up at my company. 4. my ability to get my work done. 5. my chances of being laid off. 6. my tips or commission. 7. my work schedule. 8. my relationship with my employer. 9. my relationships with my coworkers. 10. my relationship with my boss.

Note. Responses options range from 1 *(strongly disagree)* to 5 *(strongly agree)*.

APPENDIX E

POSTTRAUMATIC STRESS

Construct	Instructions and Items
Posttraumatic Stress	**Below is a list of problems and complaints that people have in response to stressful experiences. Think about the harassment experiences you've had with clients. We would like to know if you had any of the following reactions to these experiences.** 1. You had repeated, disturbing memories, thoughts, or images of the situation. 2. You had repeated, disturbing dreams of this situation. 3. You suddenly acted or felt as if the situation were happening again (as if you were reliving it). 4. You felt very upset when something reminded you of the situation. 5. You had physical reactions (e.g., heart pounding, trouble breathing, sweating), when something reminded you of the situation. 6. You avoided thinking about or talking about the situation or avoided having feeling related to it. 7. You avoided certain activities or situations because they reminded you of the situation. 8. You had trouble remembering important parts of the situation. 9. You experienced a loss of interest in activities that you used to enjoy 10. You felt distant or cut off from other people. 11. You felt emotionally numb or unable to have loving feelings for those close to you. 12. You felt as if your future somehow would be cut short. 13. You had trouble falling or staying asleep. 14. You felt irritable or had angry outbursts 15. You had difficulty concentrating. 16. You were super-alert or watchful or on guard. 17. You felt jumpy or easily were startled.

Note. Responses range from 1 *(not at all)* to 5 *(extremely).*

APPENDIX F

PERCEPTIONS OF CLIMATE FOR SEXUAL HARASSMENT

Construct	Instructions and Items
Perceptions of Organizational Climate for Sexual Harassment	**Please rate the extent to which each of the following statements describe your organization. Choose the response that you think best describes your organization. My organization...** 1. Investigates harassment complaints no matter who does the harassment 2. Investigates harassment complaints no matter what type of harassment it is 3. Investigates harassment complaints no matter how minor the harassment may seem 4. Investigates harassment complaints no matter who files the complaint 5. Has leaders who take public action to stop obvious harassing comments (for example, offensive comments about particular individuals or groups) 6. Punishes people who harass, no matter who they are 7. Has leaders who model respectful behavior toward all employees 8. Makes strong public statements about the seriousness of harassment 9. Has leaders who take quick action to stop even subtle harassing comments (for example, rumors, jokes, etc.) 10. Enforces penalties against leaders who allow sexual harassment 11. Allows people who sexually harass others to get away with it (R) 12. Does not tolerate sexual harassment 13. Takes action to prevent sexual harassment 14. Takes sexual harassment complaints seriously

Note. Responses range from 0 *(completely false)* to 5 *(completely true).*

APPENDIX G

ITEM-LEVEL STATISTICS FOR STUDY 1 CSH COPING ITEMS

	M	SD	Skewness		Kurtosis	
			Statistic	S.E.	Statistic	S.E.
1. Made excuses so the customer(s) would leave me alone.	2.90	1.19	0.04	0.16	-0.89	0.32
2. Made a formal complaint.	1.82	1.23	1.32	0.16	0.52	0.32
3. Just tried to forget about.	3.07	1.32	-0.08	0.16	-1.08	0.32
4. Intentionally provided the customer(s) with lower quality service.	2.37	1.31	0.57	0.16	-0.85	0.32
5. Tried to stay away from the customer(s).	3.44	1.28	-0.38	0.16	-0.93	0.32
6. Tried to get advice from someone about what to do.	2.58	1.39	0.34	0.16	-1.16	0.32
7. Tried to avoid being alone with the customer(s).	3.49	1.38	-0.55	0.16	-0.93	0.32
8. Talked with a manager.	2.41	1.42	0.55	0.16	-1.07	0.32
9. Told a customer I could not help them just because I did not want to help them.	1.67	1.05	1.64	0.16	1.91	0.32
10. Asked a friend for advice.	2.53	1.44	0.40	0.16	-1.26	0.32
11. Blamed myself for what happened.	1.35	0.82	2.73	0.16	7.40	0.32
12. Intentionally misrouted or misdirected the customer.	1.72	1.16	1.49	0.16	0.99	0.32
13. Talked with friends for understanding and support.	2.44	1.39	0.52	0.16	-1.04	0.32
14. Stayed out of the customer(s) way as much as possible.	3.26	1.40	-0.26	0.16	-1.21	0.32
15. Told myself it wasn't important.	2.36	1.30	0.62	0.16	-0.76	0.32
16. Refused to comply with the customer's requests.	2.41	1.45	0.64	0.16	-0.97	0.32
17. Tried not to make the customer(s) angry.	2.69	1.38	0.21	0.16	-1.18	0.32
18. Let the customer(s) know I didn't like what was happening.	2.58	1.38	0.42	0.16	-1.07	0.32

	Statistic	S.E.	Skewness		Kurtosis	
			Statistic	S.E.	Statistic	S.E.
19. Tried not to hurt the customer(s) feelings.	2.65	1.40	0.20	0.16	-1.29	0.32
20. Sabotaged the customer's goods or items (e.g., misplacing, mishandling, damaging, or polluting goods or items).	1.23	0.62	3.04	0.16	9.83	0.32
21. Asked the customer(s) to leave me alone.	2.00	1.27	1.10	0.16	0.02	0.32
22. Just put up with it.	2.74	1.36	0.15	0.16	-1.20	0.32
23. Upcharged, blacklisted, or exploited the customer.	1.26	0.71	3.08	0.16	9.78	0.32
24. Talked about it with someone I trusted.	2.85	1.44	0.13	0.16	-1.31	0.32
25. Filed a grievance.	1.39	0.89	2.65	0.16	6.76	0.32
26. Restrained myself from doing anything too quickly.	2.54	1.36	0.27	0.16	-1.23	0.32
27. Acted sarcastically toward the customer.	2.39	1.32	0.48	0.16	-1.00	0.32
28. Treated the customer just as he/she had mistreated me.	1.58	0.94	1.75	0.16	2.58	0.32
29. Refused to assist the customer (e.g., hanging up on them).	1.70	1.11	1.59	0.16	1.60	0.32
30. Vented to my coworkers.	3.01	1.42	-0.07	0.16	-1.28	0.32
31. Made the customer wait (e.g., placing them on hold for a long period of time).	1.81	1.15	1.39	0.16	0.94	0.32
32. Told the customer that I handled something that I did not handle.	1.49	0.93	2.00	0.16	3.29	0.32
33. Reported him/her/them.	1.79	1.23	1.39	0.16	0.66	0.32
34. Assumed the customer(s) meant well.	1.88	1.04	0.91	0.16	-0.21	0.32
35. Tried to grow as a person as a result of the experience.	2.80	1.31	0.24	0.16	-1.04	0.32
36. Purposefully damaged customer goods or merchandise.	1.15	0.52	3.82	0.16	14.76	0.32
37. Gave the customer a lower grade product or less of the product (e.g., skimping).	1.29	0.75	2.77	0.16	7.12	0.32

Statistic	S.E.	Statistic	Skewness		Kurtosis	
			S.E.	Statistic	S.E.	Statistic
38. Discussed my frustrations with friends or family.	2.68	1.44	0.33	0.16	-1.23	0.32
39. "Acted dumb" to avoid helping the customer.	1.86	1.15	1.19	0.16	0.41	0.32
40. Pretended to be helpful in an obnoxious way.	1.54	0.89	1.65	0.16	2.11	0.32
41. Intentionally charged the customer more than normal the normal price for their goods or services.	1.19	0.58	3.45	0.16	12.90	0.32
42. Asked people who have had similar experiences what they did.	2.33	1.38	0.56	0.16	-1.01	0.32
43. Held off doing anything about it until the situation permitted.	2.19	1.18	0.62	0.16	-0.59	0.32

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EDUCATION

Doctorate, Industrial/Organizational Psychology — May 2011
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University of Connecticut, Storrs, CT
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SELECTED PUBLICATIONS

Morganson, V. J., Jones, M. P., & Major, D. A. (2010). Understanding women's underrepresentation in Science, Technology, Engineering, and Mathematics: The role of social coping. *The Career Development Quarterly, 59,* 169-179.

Morganson, V. J., Major, D. A., Oborn, K. L., Verive, J. M., & Heelan, M. P. (2010). Comparing telework locations and traditional work arrangements: Differences in work-life balance support, job satisfaction, and inclusion. *Journal of Managerial Psychology, 25,* 578-595.

Major, D. A., & **Morganson, V. J.** (2011). Coping with work-family conflict: A leader-member exchange perspective. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 16,* 126-138.

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Winstead, B. A., & **Morganson, V. J.** (2009). Gender and relationships at work. In S. Wright & R. Morrison (Eds.), *Friends and Enemies in Organizations: A Work Psychology Perspective* (pp. 139-167). New York: Palgrave Macmillan.

PROFESSIONAL EXPERIENCE

- **Grant Project Manager,** NSF, Narrowing the Gender Divide in Engineering and Computer Science through Professional Development, "CAPSTONE" (2010-present).
- **Research Fellow,** ICF International (Summer 2009).
- **Research Assistant,** NSF, Increasing Success in Computer Science Education, "INSITE" (2008-2009).
- **HR & OD Intern,** City of Norfolk (2007).
- **Claims Representative,** Progressive Insurance (2005-2006)